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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography is part of a three-part report on creating high performing schools through organizational and individual learning. It includes such topics as: teachers supporting teachers; educational improvement via total quality management; overcoming barriers to organizational change; the institutionalization of public schools; policy-practice relationships; action research; educational standards; leadership in collaborative schools; faculty development; urban education; accountability; educational change processes; educational politics in African-American schools; parent role; better education for impoverished children; adult learners; teacher self-efficacy; accelerated learning for disadvantaged students; systemic reform; teacher engagement; professionalism and community; educational administration; context effects; the effects of student characteristics and behavior on teacher behavior; remediation; organizational culture and leadership; linking educational finance and performance; redesigning teachers' work; the principalship; modeling managerial behavior; effective school responses to student diversity in inner-city schools; and helping teachers meet the standards. (SM)

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National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability in Teaching

The Creation of High-Performance Schools Through

Organizational and Individual Learning

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Selected Annotated Bibliography: "Schools as Learning Communities"

February 22, 2000

ED 449 140

Submitted by:

James Cibulka, Principal Investigator
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Selected Annotated Bibligraphy: "Schools as Learning Communities"

Adajian, L. B. (1996). Professional communities: Teachers supporting teachers. *Mathematics Teacher, 89* (4), 321-324, 364.

The author uses several examples to show that professional communities are important to changing teachers' practices in mathematics education. A study by the National Center for Research in Mathematical Sciences Education of seventy-six high schools found higher levels of professional community correlated with instructional practices more consistent with the recommended reforms for mathematics instruction. The Urban Mathematics Collaboratives, a Ford Foundation sponsored intervention project in eleven major metropolitan areas in the US, found that mathematics teachers needed sustained professional support from peers to discover new methods and deal with challenges from students and administration. QUASAR (Quantitative Understanding: Amplifying Student Achievement and Reasoning) is a Ford Foundation funded project focusing on enhancing mathematics instruction in middle schools in poorer areas. They found that building the capacity of individual teachers and a collaborative community of teachers were both important. Driscoll's study of 150 schools with notable success in test scores, minorities education, and enrollments showed that these schools shared a high degree of cohesiveness, collegiality and sharing. In general, a professional community must have shared goals, coordinated efforts, collaborative learning, and participation of teachers in setting the goals.

Alexander, K. L., Entwisle, D. R., & Thompson, M. S. (1987). School performance, status relations, and the structure of sentiment: Bringing the teacher back in. *American Sociological Review, 52* (5), 665-682.

Research has failed to support the assumption that the academic difficulties of many minority and low-SES youth are due to their "outsider" standing relative to the middle-class culture that dominates schools. This study suggests that this proposition exaggerates the cultural hegemony of educational operations. Data on children (n=825) in the first grade of a large, socially heterogeneous urban public school system (20 schools selected from 1982 Beginning School Study data in Baltimore City) show that not all teachers are given to status-related biases. Rather, teachers' own social origins exercise a strong influence on how they react to the status attributes of their students. In particular, low-status and minority pupils experience their greatest difficulties in the classrooms of high-status teachers. They are evaluated by their teachers as

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less mature, their teachers hold lower performance expectations for them, and their teachers score exceptionally low on perceived-school-climate measures. Moreover, year-end marks and standardized-test scores of such pupils apparently are depressed by these indicators of pupil-teacher social distance and teacher disaffection. A model of pupil-teacher background congruence is proposed as an alternative to the cultural hegemony framework, and the implications of such fit for the interpersonal dynamics of the classroom are discussed."

Allen, J., Cary, M., & Delgado, L. (1995). *Exploring blue highways: Literacy reform, school change, and the creation of learning communities*. New York: Teachers College Press.

A case study about a group of teachers trying to become a teaching community, but they find that describing the path is the effective way to discover the destination. Two schools in the same county of Georgia, each with an eager new principal, partnered together with the nearby teacher preparation college, each aiming to improve their school. Propitious events that led to the reform include the principals' interest in participatory governance, local interest in community involvement, available funding from grants, and a few interested strategic individuals. During the shift to a learning community, participants expressed resentment, frustration, and resistance, but the tensions gave way to an overall shift in the way teachers viewed themselves. Teachers became learners through action research, and participants currently define themselves as a research community. Specific chapters are included on individual teacher's experiences; classroom, school-wide, and evaluation methods, increasing communication, media centers, home-school connections, and a longitudinal study of students' perceptions of their own learning in an evolving learning community.

American Association of School Administrators. (1992). *Creating quality schools* . Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

This booklet presents information on how total quality management can be applied to school systems to create educational improvement. Total quality management offers education a systemic approach and a new set of assessment tools. Chapter 1 provides a definition and historical overview of total quality management. Chapter 2 views the school district as a system and explains how it fits into the larger community system. Guidelines for fostering a consumer-supplier relationship to transform the school system are provided in the third chapter, and the principles of managing processes to ensure the cooperative interaction among subsystems for the optimization of the system are outlined in chapter 4. The fifth chapter describes analytic tools to measure educational change, and chapter 6 presents a flowchart and plan for continuous educational improvement. The final chapter offers 13 recommendations generated from the experiences of other school districts. Two figures are included. Research organizations and acknowledgments are listed.

Angus, L. (1996). Cultural dynamics and organizational analysis: Leadership, administration and the management of meaning in schools. In J. K. Leithwood, D. Chapman, PP. H. Carson, & A. Hart (Eds.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 967-996). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

The author argues that the predominant perspective of school administration is that culture is an organizational variable and that organizational dynamics are "sets of behaviors that can largely be predicted and contained within school cultures, and which can largely be controlled by administrators" (pp. 967).This narrow functionalist orientation and obsession with administrative control fails to recognize that "culture is shifting and contested, and is continually being constructed and reconstructed" (pp. 968). The author suggests that people's experiences with organizations generally involve conflict and dispute rather than a sense of a homogenous culture. Also, some theorists appear to suggest that managers have virtually unlimited power and influence on the organization's culture. This is untrue, according to this author. The author utilizes much of Meek's work in organizational culture to show that much recent management literature advocates a shift "from strictly bureaucratic control to ideological control under the guise of a celebration of organizational culture" (pp. 977), thus minimizing the alternative traditions of cultural work in administration. The author links educational control with broader social control. As meanings are socially constructed so too are cultures constructed, continually shifting. In schools, teachers and students are active participants in the process, as is the cultural milieu of the society in which they are embedded. Administrative theories and perspectives need to take this aspect into account. The author names traditions that could help inform leadership/management theories: socially critical traditions, feminist theory, emergence of democratic school practices in teachers' work, postmodernist approaches which share a recognition of a relationship between school culture and power.

Argyris, C. (1982). *Reasoning learning and action: Individual and organizational*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

In the first section, the author describes examples of double-loop learning and the reasoning processes used to deal with these types of problems (which turn out to be similar even in different contexts). He then describes models of the theories that people use and the environments created when these theories are used. These theories turn out to be counterproductive for double-loop learning, thereby escalating error. This leads people to distance themselves which in turn leads to poorer information feedback with leads to a distancing from the reasoning process that led them there to begin with. Part 2 focuses on a theory that can be helpful for double-loop learning, with illustrations at the individual and group levels. Part 3 looks at some of the pros and cons of using this new theory to deal with double-loop problems in organizations using illustrations from actual organizations. The text closes with thoughts on the implications for

research on individual and organizational development and the use of action science.

Argyris, C. (1990). *Overcoming organizational defenses* . Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Chris Argyris offers us an insightful and challenging examination of the barriers to organizational learning. He does this by first citing the organizational defenses that impede change and the improvement of organizational performance. His pithy depiction of Seven Worldwide Errors, such as blaming others or the system, organizational inertia, lack of upward communication for different issues, the budget games, unreasonable behavior, and the mythical team, are further vivid descriptions.

Argyris labels the need of human beings to be in command of their actions "skilled incompetence." Though individuals espouse certain beliefs or attitudes, their actual behavior (theory-in-use) incorporates defensive reasoning and is designed to produce negative results. He tags this Model I. As this behavior is pervasive in most organizations, organizational defensive routines (O.D.R.) are rampant. Thus, whenever actions are self-protective and self-reinforcing, they can easily become self-proliferating. The high-profile examples of O.D.R. Argyris offers from within NASA, the Vietnam War, Lehman Brothers, and the Federal budget planning process are captivating and drive home his thesis.

Additional organizational defenses occur with the use of fancy footwork and the malaise that ensues. Symptoms of organizational malaise are: "1) seeking and finding fault with the organization but not accepting responsibility for correcting it, (2) accentuating the negative and de-emphasizing the positive, and (3) espousing values that everyone knows are not implementable but acting as if they are." Argyris is convinced that organizational defense patterns (O.D.PP.) exist in all kinds of organizations. This leads to mediocre performance or even unmanageability. To reduce the O.D.PP. requires interrupting it in such a way that it cannot maintain itself. "In order to accomplish this, skilled incompetence, organizational defensive routines, and fancy footwork will have to be interpreted to show exactly how they are counterproductive."

Argyris then emphasizes that organizations must first learn a new theory-in-use, Model II. The governing values of Model II are valid information, informed choice, and responsibility to monitor how well the choice is implemented. It entails the following steps: develop a culture that rewards Model II actions; map out how the organization presently deals with problems that are embarrassing and threatening; help the individual players diagnose the extent they contribute to creating and maintaining the map; guide the players in taking Model 11 from an espoused theory to a theory-in-use; and guide them in using this learning experience to solve new organizational problems.

The reader will find other pearls of wisdom in the author's presentation of the seven steps for overcoming organizational defenses and his discussion of a mind-set for upping the ante. His examples can be very useful to senior executives and organizational consultants with a desire to overcome the prevalent organizational defenses. However, as Argyris artfully illustrates, it takes a
very insightful leader with a high degree of understanding of organizational behavior to overcome the O.D.R.s.

This challenging and well-written book certainly offers a theoretical underpinning, a logical thinking solution, and some definite suggestions for effecting organizational change. The case studies reinforce the need to look more deeply into what is actually required to obtain change.

Argyris, C. (1993). *Knowledge for action: A guide to overcoming barriers to organizational change* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This guide is intended to help organizational researchers involved in diagnosing organizations and helping them change. Part 1 focuses on defensive routines that limit learning at the organizational, intergroup, group, and individual levels. Part 2 focuses on the case study of a consulting firm at which a climate fostering learning and change was established. Each chapter in Part 2 covers one of the following steps in diagnosing and intervening in an organization: 1) interview and observe the players; (2) organize the findings for learning and action; (3) conduct meaningful feedback sessions; and (4) facilitate the change seminar with live cases. Part 3 discusses the following possible outcomes of the four-step diagnosis and intervention process: stopping button pushing and explosive relationships, overcoming resentment and rebuilding trust, managing the clash of expectations and needs to build new team leadership, getting feedback from below, and discussing and correcting out-of-control routines. The final section of part 3 summarizes the implications of the case study in the form of a model for change and improvement. A discussion of the implications for conducting research that produces actionable knowledge that can be used by practitioners is appended. The bibliography lists 215 references.)

Ashton, PP. W. R. (1986). *Making a difference: Teacher's sense of efficacy and student achievement* . New York: Longman.

"In the summer of 1979, the National Institute of Education issued a call for proposals for a research study to develop a conceptual framework for the future study of teachers' sense of efficacy. Teachers' sense of efficacy was defined as the

extent to which teachers believe they can affect student learning. With the support of the National Institute of Education, we began our study of teachers' sense of efficacy in the fall of 1979. The purpose of our research was 1) to develop a conceptual framework for understanding the nature, antecedents, and consequences of efficacy attitudes in teachers and (2) to suggest further research necessary to reject, elaborate, and/or extend the conceptual framework."

Ball, D. L. (1990). The mathematical understanding that prospective teachers bring to teacher education. *Elementary Education Journal, 90* , 449-466.

Examines what prospective elementary and secondary mathematics teachers understand about mathematics when they enter formal teacher education. Results reveal that the mathematics understanding of elementary and secondary teacher candidates tends to be rule-bound and inadequate.

Ball, D. L. (1993). With an eye on the mathematical horizon: Dilemmas of teaching elementary school mathematics. *The Elementary School Journal, 93* (4), 373-397.

Based on a teacher's experience of teaching third-grade mathematics, this article reviews some of the problems faced in representing mathematical concepts to children, respecting children as mathematical thinkers, and creating a sense of community in the classroom.

Ball, D. C., D. (1997). *Where macro and micro perspectives meet: Resources and teacher policy* : University of Michigan

This article addresses the myriad of factors which influence and mediate effective instruction. Instruction or instructional materials and credentials are themselves "inert" and do not cause or create learning. It is the interaction of materials with the contexts of the teacher's beliefs, culture, system, organization and the learners themselves and degree of engagement which facilitate instruction and learning. Cohen and Ball suggest that interveners and or attempts at instructional reform have not typically taken into account the interaction of all the contextual and resource factors which affect instruction, and in addition have not always provided ample opportunity for teachers themselves to learn in the process how to be able to affect the instructional interaction. The authors suggest that the teacher's opportunity to learn and change ultimately affects their beliefs and attitudes toward other learners' ability to do the same.

The challenge for interveners who seek to improve instruction is that critical instructional resources are so often lacking, such as the following: 1) few schools share common instructional goals and purposes; 2) fewer employ consistent instructional methods; 3) standards for student performance are rarely explicitly articulated and shared; 4) internal (school) coordination of instruction to ensure coherence across grade levels does not exist; 5) few principles enact their role as that of instructional leader. Thus, interveners who seek to improve instruction must solve/address these types of problems as part of their change process. An additional challenge to improving instruction cited by the authors is the extraordinary fragmentation of school system organizations which are generally diffuse environments in which there are multiple and even conflicting messages about instruction.

To ensure that reform efforts which attempt to improve upon instruction, the authors provide a list of issues/factors which need to be addressed in the intervention and which include: 1) System Organization (policies, consistency); 2) Coordination of instruction (working in concert on the central function of instruction); 3) Professional norms (current norms are strong on individualism and autonomy but weak on content, common expectations, collaboration); 4) Resources for professional education (need to overcome the paucity of existing resources and the absence of norms for common work on instruction); 5)Professional learning (teacher education often enforces the extant conditions of work rather than preparing teacher, whose orientation is profession and who expect to work with other professionals); and 6) Issue Attention Cycle (the effects of weak and diffuse guidance for instruction are compounded by rapid change in the instructional environment. Attention spans and issue agendas are often quite short so the content of many activities including policy making and school improvement shift frequently without any deep and sustained improvements of practice).

A final factor on which the authors focus which serves to challenge efforts toward instructional improvement has to do with the larger society and culture. The authors suggest this as another reason that the environments of instruction do little to foster demanding instruction or to encourage instructional improvement. Though many Americans value schooling, the social and economic supports for instruction effort are relatively weak. In many nations, teachers are respected, teaching is a respectable career, learning is highly valued and popular culture supports hard work in school. The authors contend that in the U.S. however, teachers are often figures of fun; teaching is not a respected profession, money, glamour, etc. are more prominently features in the popular culture than is teaching and learning.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory* . Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

The book attempts to "provide a unified theoretical framework for analyzing human thought and behavior." Bandura argues that human behavior is neither completely determined by external environmental events or solely by internal

causes. Bandura attempts to blend theories of individual determinism with Skinner's operant conditioning theory and Piaget's developmental theory. His social learning theory suggests that there is a reciprocal relationship between external and internal influences that shapes individual behavior as well and the environmental context which a person experiences.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

The author takes a multidisciplinary view toward social origins of thought. He presents a theoretical framework for analyzing human motivation, thought and action from a social cognitive perspective. Models of human nature and causality are described, including psychodynamic theory, trait theory, reciprocal determinism and others. Other chapters include Observational Learning, Enactive Learning, Social Diffusion and Innovation, Predictive Knowledge and Forethought, Incentive Motivators, Vicarious Motivators, Self-Regulatory Mechanisms, Self-Efficacy, and Cognitive Regulators.

Barott, J. E., & Raybould, R. (1998). Changing schools into collaborative organizations. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: promises and pitfalls* (pp. 27-42). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

This chapter takes a process view of organizing, therefore looks at a move towards collaboration as a desire to change the patterns and nature of relationships in the organization. An increase in collaboration must be paired with a decrease in autonomy and discretion, and an increase in conflict (and its potential). Also, the weight of costs v. benefits must be weighed in collaborative endeavors. The text discusses first order change (change that allows the basic nature of the system to persist) and second order change (change that alters the basic nature of the system). Any planned change must be tackled with methods consistent with its type in order to avoid impasses.

Berman, PP., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change: Vol.8. Implementing and sustaining innovation*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

This report reviews and synthesizes the findings of a four-year, two-phase study conducted by the Rand Corporation to examine and evaluate a national sample of educational innovations funded by Federal programs. Section I of this document provides background information and descriptions of the study. Section II discusses Rand's research approach and design. Section III presents a synthesis of the findings, regarding the effects of Federal change agent policies. Section IV describes the local process of change precipitated by the availability of Federal "seed money," focusing on the distinction between local patterns of innovative activity that were ineffective, and those that characterized effective and lasting change efforts. Section V examines characteristics of school projects, of school district settings, and of Federal influences as these affected innovation. Section VI goes beyond the quantitative and qualitative analysis to consider basic questions about Federal change agent policy and the government's role in educational reform.

Bodilly, S. (1995). *Conceptual framework for RAND evaluation of New American Schools (NAS) Phase 3*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

The New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) was created in 1991 as part of the America 2000 Initiative to fund the development of new designs for American elementary and secondary schools, funded nine teams to develop designs for higher performing schools (Phase 1, 1992-1993) and to test and demonstrate those designs in real schools (Phase 2, 1993-1995). NASDC, now New American Schools (NAS), chose seven teams to enter its Phase 3, collaboration with several jurisdictions to transform over 30 percent of the schools in each jurisdiction to high performing schools by use of the NAS designs within a five-year period. NAS asked RAND to be an analytic arm of its efforts. As such RAND will perform an evaluation of the Phase 3 effort. This paper describes the conceptual framework for the evaluation, contrasts the planned approach with past approached to reform and draw out the implications for analysis and evaluation of the effort, especially the challenges posed. The paper argues that the NAS model of change in schools and jurisdictions does not fit the traditional model of school improvement and requires a different evaluation design than the controlled experimental model used for more traditional program interventions. The alternative approach adopted (for the Phase 3 evaluation) is referred to as an "*inquiry-based, formative evaluation,*" and has important contrasts to the traditional model (pp.2-3). The NAS designs and Phase 3 approach is based on a progress model with districts and schools moving toward comprehensive self-improvements. Therefore, the research design attempts to gauge and understand the progress schools make in improving student performance levels as implementation proceeds. The research design puts quantitative and qualitative data collection systems in place to compile relevant information about progress of schools and contributing factors (though exact interactions are not predicted in advance, rather the facts are observed and sorted to develop and refine sets of indicators for probably cause and effect. Environment and interventions are not controlled and are allowed to develop as needed to provide, through feedback loops for organizational learning, the most effective strategies for change.

Brown, J., & Duguid, PP. (1996). Organizational learning and communities-of-practice: Toward a unified view of working, learning and innovation. In M. Cohen & L. Sproull (Eds.), *Organizational learning* (pp. 58-82). Thousand

Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

"Recent ethnographic studies of workplace practices indicate that the ways people actually work usually differ fundamentally from the ways organizations describe that work in manuals, training programs, organizational charts, and job descriptions. Nevertheless, organizations tend to rely on the latter in their attempts to understand and improve work practice" (Abstract, pp. 58). The authors first look at Orr's (1987a, 1987b, 1990a, 1990b) studies of service technicians to make the claim that reliance on espoused practice can blind an organization to the actual practices that really determine the success or failure of organizations. The authors then look at theories of learning, especially Lave and Wenger's (1990) theory of "legitimate peripheral participation" that shows the sound theoretical basis of linking knowledge and practice: "the fluid evolution of learning through practice" (pp. 59). The authors then analyze Daft and Weick's (1984) account of organizations to link learning and practice with the process of change in an organization or community. "Taking all three theories together, we argue that, through their constant adapting to changing membership and changing circumstances, evolving communities-of-practice are significant sites of innovating" (pp. 60).

Bryk, A. S., & Driscoll, M. E. (1988). *The high school as community: Contextual influences and consequences for students and teachers* . Washington D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

"This study developed an index of communal school organization and used this measure to focus on specific features of high schools as social organizations. The philosophical and social perspectives of the school as a community are explored, focusing on the school as a social organization consisting of cooperative adults who share a common purpose and where daily life for both adults and students is informed by shared values and a common agenda of activities. The positive relationship between parents and school staff provides important support for school aims. The "High School and Beyond" data base and results from the Administrators and Teacher Survey (ATS), provided the core data for this analysis of the school as a community as reflected by teacher behavior and expectations for student achievement and behavior, and the possible consequences of a communal school organization on students. A discussion of the results is augmented by tables displaying the data used in the study."

Authors describe a communal school organization as having three core concepts: "1) a system of shared values among the members of the organization, reflected primarily in beliefs about the purposes of the institution, about what students should learn, about how adults and students should behave, and about what kinds of people students are capable of becoming; 2) a common agenda of activities designed to foster meaningful social interactions among school members and link them to the school's traditions; and 3) a distinctive pattern of social relations, embodying an ethos of caring that is visibly manifest in collegial relations among the adults of the institution and in an extended teacher role." Authors propose that all three features are essential and reinforcing, with powerful effects on teachers and students.

Bryk, A. S., & Thum, Y. M. (1989). *The effects of high school organization on dropping out: An exploratory investigation*. New Brunswick, NJ: Center for Policy Research in Education.

Examined in this paper are the effects of school characteristics on both the probability of dropping out and absenteeism as the strongest predictor of dropping out. The project employed a sub sample from the "High School and Beyond" database that contains results from questionnaires and achievement tests given in 1980 to approximately 30,000 sophomores in 1,100 public and private high schools. The sub-sample used for this paper--160 schools and 4,450 students-- was investigated using the HLM analytic technique (hierarchical linear modeling), which permits evaluation of the impact of school-level factors on the relationship among student characteristics, absenteeism, and dropping out. The analysis reveals that absenteeism is less prevalent in schools where faculty are interested in and engaged with students and where there is an academic emphasis. A committed faculty, an orderly environment, and a school emphasis on academic pursuits are all associated with lower probability of dropping out for disadvantaged and at-risk youth. Appended are 47 references and a technical appendix on HLM estimation.

Bryk, A. S., Lee, V. E., & Smith, J. L. (1990). High school organization and its effects on teachers and students: An interpretive summary of the research. In W. H. Clune & J. F. Witte (Eds.), *Choice and control in American education: The theory of choice and control in education* (Vol. 1, pp. 135-226). New York: Falmer Press.

"This chapter summarizes diverse literature concerning the structure of high school organizations. It focuses on both the influence of external characteristics on internal operations of schools, and the effects of these internal organizational components on teachers and students. The review draws from analytic essays; recent qualitative and quantitative studies, which provide empirical evidence on relationships of interest, and synthesis of previously published literature. The conceptual framework, employed in the review, sees schools as organizations which are both shaped by external factors and mediate the influence of these externalities on both teachers and students. We focus on four external factors: school size, governance structure, parental and community involvement in the school, and student body composition. Important relations between these features and internal organizational characteristics typify how a school's organization is either responsive to external influences or is buffered from such influences. The primary focus of this chapter is on four components of the internal organization of schools which impact both teachers and students: the cultural system of the school, administration, the formal organization of the school as a workplace for both teachers and students, and the social relations among adults and student members of the organization. We identify two distinct streams of research related to

successful school organization. The first focuses on curricular functions, policies and practices affecting assignment of students and teachers to schools and classes within schools. The research here clearly indicates that curricular organization has powerful effects on academic achievement and how it is distributed with regard to race/ethnicity and class. The second stream focuses on the nature of social relations within a school, and has identified such cultural elements of community as social cooperation and shared beliefs as having positive effects on teacher commitment and student engagement in schooling. This contrasts with portraits of modern comprehensive high schools marked by distrust, misunderstanding, social conflict, and lack of personal regard for the individuals who staff the institutions."

Bystrom, V. A. (1997). Getting it together: Learning communities. In W. E. Campbell & K. A. Smith (Eds.), *New Paradigms for College Teaching* (pp. 243-267). Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

The chapter is a highly anecdotal essay on learning communities in a higher education setting. "Learning community" is defined as active and collaborative classrooms in conjunction with collaborating teachers, resulting in a purposefully integrated curriculum. Specifically, "a learning community is a course of study designed by two or more faculty which includes work in different disciplines integrated around a particular issue or theme" (pp.247).

Caine, R. N., & Caine, G. (1997). *Education on the edge of possibility* . Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

The theory of this book is based on brain-based learning. Beginning with how the brain deals with information, one must change from the idea of information being owned to information being fluid, dynamic and extremely interconnected. The theoretical discussion then leads to changing educators perceptions of learning, which the authors state "had the most profound effect on changing the sense of community in the schools" (pp. 28). Practical strategies and interventions are discussed. The final section describes three instructional approaches with identifiable parameters that create a picture of the goals of instructional change. Community is a result of no longer following a linear model of education. It is moving from "Only experts create knowledge. Teachers deliver knowledge in the form of information. Children are graded on how much of the information they have stored" (pp. 66) to "Dynamical knowledge requires individual meaning making based on multiple sources of information. The role of educators is to facilitate the making of dynamical knowledge. Dynamical knowledge is revealed through real-world performance" (pp. 67). The authors partially quote Mary Driscoll's (1994) definition of a learning community: "A system of values that are shared and commonly understood among the members of the organization; a common agenda of activities that marks membership in the organization; teachers [who] engage in collegial practices . . . [so] that they perceive other teachers as sources of help and support when faced with academic problems . . .[and] this broadly based connection with other teachers is also manifest in their relation with students" (pp. 195-196).

Calkins, L. M. (1991). A place of writing and reading. In L. M. Calkins & L. M. Harwayne (Eds.), *Living between the lines* (pp. 11-24). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

In this chapter the author describes the importance of bringing the lives of children into the classroom. Reading and writing will not come alive without the passion of life of the students--this life comes from allowing and inviting and welcoming the lives children lead into the classrooms. Teachers must love the children first, utilizing the children themselves as well as their parents as sources of "real" information on the children. Once children can share themselves, learning to write and read will happen.

Calkins, L. M., & Harwayne, L. M. (1991). *Living between the lines* . Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Intended for both experienced and novice K-12 teachers, this book invites teachers to bring new life into the reading-writing workshop and calls for teachers to push back the frontiers of their thinking about teaching writing and reading. The book includes chapters on establishing courses of study in which children read and write memoir, picture books, and nonfiction; the story of how writers' notebooks and a new focus on rehearsal have led to a major rethinking of the writing workshop; a look at the qualities of good writing; an introduction to literature and ways these texts can enrich classrooms; and an invitation to pioneer new ideas about conferring, record keeping, mini-lessons, and organizational structures for the workshop. Chapters in the book are: 1) Big Dreams and Tall Ambitions in the Teaching of Writing; 2) A Place for Writing and Reading; 3) Shared Stories Turn Classrooms into Communities; 4) The Notebook: A Tool for Writing and Living; 5) Rereading and Reflecting: Adding Growth Rings of Meaning to Our Writing; 6) From Notebooks to Projects; 7) Revision of Teaching; 8) When Writers Clear the Sills of Their World; 9) Silent Spaces and Study Groups in the Reading and Writing Workshop; 10) New Frontiers; 11) Picture Books and the Magic of "Once upon a Time"; 12) Memoir: Reading and Writing the Story of Our Lives; 13) And the Walls Come Tumbling Down: Bringing Our Lives to Nonfiction Research; 14) Learning to Confer in Ways That Last a Lifetime; 15) Records of Growth; 16) Hopes and Horizons: Understanding Our Children's Images of Good Writing; 17) Density in Writing: When Tests Take Writers and Readers on Significant Journeys; 18) On Loving Words; and 19) Nurturing Writing, Nurturing Teaching.

Carnegie. (1989). *Turning points: Preparing youth for the 21st century* . New York: Carnegie Corporation.

This report examines the condition of America's young adolescents and how well middle grade schools, health institutions, and community organizations serve them. In its plan for action, the Task Force on Education of Young Adolescents of the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development makes recommendations for new structures for middle grade education. A 15-year-old who has been well served in the middle years of schooling will be the following: 1) an intellectually reflective person; 2) a person en route to a lifetime of meaningful work; 3) a good citizen; 4) a caring and ethical individual; and 5) a healthy person. The report reviews the following recommendations for transforming middle grade schools: 1) create small communities for learning; 2) teach a core academic program; 3) ensure academic success for all students by shaping the educational program to fit the needs of students; 4) empower teachers and administrators to make decisions about the experiences of middle grade students; 5) staff middle grade schools with teachers who are expert at teaching young adolescents; 6) improve academic performance through fostering health and fitness; 7) reengage families in the education of young adolescents; and 8) connect schools with communities. Eight figures provide various statistical data on adolescents. The following appendices are included: 1) a list of commissioned papers; 2) a list of working papers; 3) a list of consultants and their affiliations; 4) a list of their workshops and attendees; and 5) biographical sketches of task force members.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. (1996). *Great transitions: Preparing adolescents for a new century*. New York: Carnegie Corporation.

The Carnegie Corporation's Council on Adolescent Development builds on the work of many organizations and individuals to stimulate sustained public attention to the risks and opportunities of adolescence, and generates public and private support for measures that facilitate the critical transition to adulthood. The Council's concluding report explores some of the risks of adolescence and gives recommendations for meeting the essential requirements of healthy adolescent development and adapting pivotal institutions to foster healthy adolescence. This executive summary reviews the concluding report of the Council, summarizing its main themes and recommendations. The summary notes how social and technological changes have introduced new stresses and risks to the adolescent experience, then lists specific health and educational risks. The summary then lists steps for meeting the essential requirements for healthy emotional and social adolescent development. Finally, the summary presents a generic approach for adapting pivotal institutions to foster healthy adolescents, then offers core recommendations: 1) reengaging families with their adolescent children; 2) creating developmentally appropriate schools for adolescents; 3) developing health-promotion strategies for young adolescents; 4) strengthening communities with young adolescents; and 5) promoting the constructive potential of the media. Steps other institutions--such as business and universities--can take to promote healthy adolescent development are also noted.

Castle, D. K., & Estes, N. (1995). *High-performance learning communities*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

The authors suggest dramatic changes in schools today are needed to create "high-performance learning communities." The proposed systemic change refers to the design and interrelationships of curriculum, staffing, teaching, community involvement, and governance. Also, planning, implementing, managing, sustaining, and evaluating complex change is necessary. The text includes suggestions for training new leaders, a checklist to guide systematic planning of these communities, examples of districts already implementing some of these ideals, and an annotated bibliography. The authors detail these characteristics of high performing learning communities: 1)"*A shared vision* of a strategically-managed and nurturing, outcome-based learning environment in which high standards of health, education, and social development are achieved by all learners. There is the active participation of parents, business, health care providers, social service organizations, civic organizations, taxpayers, and the entire community in the educational process, which is also an integral part of the economic development of the community. 2) *The use of leading-edge technologies* to provide communications and linkages among all sectors of the high-performance learning community-- school; homes; health, family, and social services; businesses; and community regional and national institutions and resources. The learning environment also employs these computer-based technologies in its management and instructional processes. 3) *An emphasis on the teacher* as the primary influence in the system. Interdisciplinary teams of educators manage and directly allocate resources for learning as dictated by individual student need. The teacher facilitates learning. Curriculum assessment and human resource development are mutually reinforcing. Training and resources are available to teachers to support their critical role. 4) *Provision for a variety of learning settings* that reflect different learning styles, interests, abilities, developmental levels, curriculum requirements, and styles of living. 5) *A simulated safe, supportive family-like structur* e based on love that provides each student the security of a core of meaningful adults and peers who teach, advise, monitor, relate, and provide service for an extended period of time. This includes referral and access to health, family, and social services. 6) *A cohesive management strategy* for individual achievement that is the joint responsibility of the learner, family, and community. There is employee involvement in management functions, and decision-making is at the point of production. Trusting relationships exist between managers, employees, and customers through shared information and cooperation in solving problems and reaching objectives" (PP. 7-8).

Chapman, J. (1996). A new agenda for a new society. In K. Leithwood, J. Chapman, D. Carson, PP. Hallinger, & A. Hart (Eds.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 27-59). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

The author discusses life-long learning from three perspectives: "for economic progress and development, for democratic

understanding and activity, and for personal development and fulfillment" (pp. 30). These reasons interact and cross-fertilize each other and require a greater emphasis on a more coherent, consistent, integrated, more multi-faceted approach to learning (through policy) than has previously existed. Various national/international conferences have debated the extent of the role of federal governments, the issue of equitable support for all, the issue of differing values and priorities on learning programs, and a method of encouraging co-investment to foster individuals to take a personal stake in their own learning thus increasing their motivation. The author suggests that it is essential that governments reconsider questions of substance and goals in the view of a democratic, socially inclusive, and ethically just society, rather than the more market-driven reasoning that has characterized the past decade. To improve the quality of schooling, governments will have to face issues of redistribution of power and administrative responsibility among the various levels in the education system. In working towards this goal, two trends can be seen worldwide: a growing recognition that success of reforms is linked to the implementation and application of policy at local and institutional levels, and an increasing emphasis on the justified authority of government to formulate objectives, guidelines and monitor quality control. These relationships are more complex than previously recognized. In addition, more information is needed on the increasing focus on partnerships/relationships between schools and parents, community organizations, businesses, government, and the like--how both partners in these relationships contribute, inform, sustain, and enhance students, communities, and society. These relationships are underpinned by a need for society to accept "the notion and value of 'the Learning Community' as a fundamental pre-condition for life-long learning" (pp. 42).

The author describes learning communities as requiring "building up the capacity of the families to understand the educational needs and progress of their children and to make serious and informed contributions into the educational process; building up the capacity of teachers to understand children, their background and networks of relationships, and to relate to their families" (pp. 43). The principal's role in creating, sustaining, and maintaining the culture in which all this can happen is essential. Systems need to support these efforts. Appropriate, adequate, and accurate assessments of school performance are still a concern in many countries. David Stewart, at his address at the First Global Conference on Life Long Learning (Rome, December 1994) identified characteristics of learning organizations: 1) Invest in their own future through the education and training of all their people.2) Create opportunities for and encourages all their people in all their functions as employees, members, professionals, or students of the organizations; as ambassadors of the organization to its customers, clients audiences an suppliers; as citizens of the wider society in which the organization exists and as human beings with the need to realize their own capabilities.3) Share their vision and sense of mission with their people and stimulate them to challenge it, to change it, and to contribute to it. 4) Integrate work and learning and inspire all their people to seek quality, excellence and continuous improvement in both.5) Mobilize all their human talent by putting the emphasis on learning and planning their education and training activities accordingly.6) Empower all their people to broaden their horizons in harmony with their preferred learning styles.7) Apply up to date open and distance delivery technologies appropriately to create broader and more varied learning opportunities.8) Respond proactively to the wider needs of the environment and the society in which they operate and encourage their people to do likewise.9) Learn and relearn constantly in order to remain innovative, inventive, invigorating and in business." (PP. 45-46).

The author briefly describes the implications on curriculum, linking it to recent developments in learning theory, cognitive development theory and meta-cognition. She sees innovative use of technology as the next stage in applying new technology to enhancing and facilitating new learning-teaching methods. She also suggests that the concept of schools as the locations for learning may become looser, operating nationally and internationally as individuals linked electronically in a variety of learning communities. Additionally, the application of life-long learning/learning communities to current school systems will require an matching response in teacher pre-service and in- service, so that teachers, too, have a commitment to their own life-long learning.

Cibulka, J. G. (1995). The institutionalization of public schools: The decline of legitimating myths and the politics of organizational instability. In R. T. Ogawa (Ed.), *Advances in research and theories of school management and school policy* (Vol. 3, pp. 182-157). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

The author suggests that both exogenous and endogenous factors affect the political stability and legitimacy of the educational institution. He notes the concomitant decline of organizational legitimacy and increased resource support and goes on to describe how the institutionalization of American public schools has resulted in the erosion of two legitimating myths. The two myths identified are that the American public schools are apolitically governed and that public education is the route to social mobility. The author identifies changes in the external environment, social and cultural values, and organizational structure which have resulted in increase the institutionalization of public schools but eroded the base of public support for the same institution. Specifically the author describes the effects of international influences, demographic changes, the increased influence of federal and state authority, the proliferation of organized interest groups, collective bargaining, and dispersed policy setting and decision-making. The author suggests that the current trend of declining diffuse support and increased funding for public education cannot continue further increasing the institutions instability. He goes on to assert that his analysis in this paper suggests that "the dynamic of institutionalization may serve to stabilize the organizational order only for a time and paradoxically may create the preconditions for disorder. " thus modifying Meyer and Rowan's theory of institutional organization.

Cibulka, J., & Kritek, W. (1996). *Coordination among schools, families and communities: Prospects for education reform* . Albany: State University Press.

Establishing coordination among schools, families and communities has emerged as a major policy issue in the debate over the quality of education and how the restructuring of education should be accomplished. Whether as a component of various educational reform efforts, or as an issue presented starkly in its own right, coordination among schools, families and communities is being reexamined and rethought by scholars and policy makers at every level of government. The impetus for the renewed interest has its roots in two significant developments oft he past 20 years--the worsening condition of the lives of millions of American children who are born into and grow up in poverty and the decline of the US as the preeminent economic power in the world. While the push for coordination of services for children and families is held out as possible means of accomplishing effectiveness and efficiency objectives, there is as yet little data to give much support to either hope--although some evidence seems to indicate that coordination of services has provided real benefits.

The book is divided into three sections with the selection of works in the first part describing various models of coordination and collaboration which provide a glimpse of the extensiveness of the arena of coordination and collaboration. As a group they point to the need for structures and processes to facilitate communication among groups who are not accustomed to talking, planning or carrying out programs collaboratively. The second segment of the book addresses organizational and management issues with chapters by Crowson and Boyd, Mawinney, and Smylie, Crowson, Chow, and Levin. The third segment of the book addresses evaluation and critiques of coordination as a reform.

Cibulka, J. G., & Mintrop, H. M. (1997). *The effects of school reconstitution on educational improvement. Research proposal to the Office of Educational Research and Improvement* . Washington D.C.: US Department of Education.

"Failing schools are a national problem. In recent years, many districts and states have created standards-based accountability systems designed to provide incentives and sanctions for change. School reconstitution is one of these accountability measures. However, despite the growing popularity of reconstitution as a policy initiative, there is scant evidence of its benefits. Research is needed.

The study examines the policies and practices in three jurisdictions that have been on the forefront of reconstitution efforts: San Francisco, Maryland, and Kentucky. The study has four overarching goals: first, to find out if the probationary stages of reconstitution policies leads over time to improvement in identified schools; second, to identify policy measures and instruments that proved conducive or detrimental to positive change; third, to understand school context conditions under which improvement, decline, or stagnation of performance occurs; fourth, to understand how strategies aimed at raising performance according to the system's standards represent important steps in improving children's education.

We conceptualize the connection between reconstitution policies and school performance as mediated by educators' motivation, skill, and by improvement strategies formulated and carried out in specific school site contexts. Comparative analysis across cases will provide a broad-based perspective on whether and how the specific fusion of threat, supervision, and support create change in schools."

Clark, D., Lotto, S., & McCarthy, M. (1980). Factors associated with success in urban elementary schools. *Phi Delta Kappan, 61* (7), 467-470.

A review of the literature and a discussion with experts provided the data supporting 12 generalizations about success factors in urban elementary schools. Three clusters were particularly important: leadership, teaching personnel, and curriculum and instruction.

Clune, W. H. (1993). The best path to systemic educational policy: Standard centralized or differentiated/decentralized? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15* (3), 233-254.

It is argued that the basic means-ends analysis of systemic educational policy may be mistaken in the current national context. The author agrees with the basic premises of systemic educational policy but thinks that a mandatory system of strong instructional guidance from the state has basic problems, as discussed.

Cobb, PP., Wood, T., & Yackel, E. (1993). Discourse, mathematical thinking and classroom practice. In E. A. Forman, N. Minick, & C. A. Stone (Eds.), *Contexts for learning: Sociocultural dynamics in children's development* (pp. 91-119). New York: Oxford University Press.

The initial goal of this research was to develop instructional settings in second-grade mathematics' classrooms consistent with constructivist theory of knowledge. A year-long teaching experiment was conducted in one second grade classroom in which the teacher taught math 4 days per week, and the research team and the teacher met on the fifth day to discuss pertinent instructional issues. The researchers state that initially the theory used was almost exclusively cognitive constructivist perspective, but that it was soon evident that this theory was inadequate. As they made sense of the classroom life, their observations were more consistent with Vygotsky's phases of intellectual development. The researchers describe the reflexive relationship between teacher and students talking about mathematics and teacher and

students talking about talking about mathematics. The teacher and students pursued a joint mathematical activity while acknowledging the institutionalized power imbalance between teacher and children. A dialectical relationship was observed in viewing the class from cognitive and anthropological perspectives. This was evident in how individual beliefs influenced the formation of social norms even as social norms influenced individual beliefs. These relationships seem to be analogous to a scientific community's creation of scientific knowledge and a scientific knowledge tradition. The researchers believe the "fundamental lesson . . . is that it is essential to adopt this [anthropological] perspective even if one's primary concern is to understand individual students' construction of mathematical knowledge" (pp. 114). The tension between the anthropological perspective and the cognitive perspective is felt by the teacher as a tension between pushing students to go further and making a comfortable learning environment, and between covering the curriculum and teaching students to understand.

Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. In A. Iran-Nejad, and P. D. Pearson, (Eds.) *Research in education 24.* (pp. 249-306). Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

The authors argue that there are three contrasting conceptions of teacher learning that drive contemporary professional development. Embedded in these are different ideas about knowledge and professional practice and how these elements relate to one another in teachers' work. Conception 1 is knowledge *for* practice. Here is knowledge is produced primarily by university-based researchers and scholars in various disciplines. There is an official and formal body of content area knowledge particularly rooted in disciplines. Teachers use this knowledge but do not generate it. Conception 2 seeks knowledge *in* practice. Here knowledge is expressed in exemplary practice of experienced teachers, as they pose and construct problems out of the uncertainty and complexity of practice. Thus, teachers share in creating valuable knowledge. Teacher learning hinges on enhancing teachers' understandings of their own assumptions, reasoning and actions. Conception 3 is knowledge *of* practice. This view rejects the distinction between formal and practical knowledge. Knowledge emanates from systematic inquires by teachers over their career span, addressing a host of topics concerning teaching, learners and learning, subject matter and curriculum, and schools and schooling. Teachers are co-constructors of knowledge, and their practice includes things done outside their classrooms, such as connections to children and their families, to community organizations, and to school-university partnerships. The authors endorse "inquiry as stance" associated with the third conception. They discuss how knowledge is generated in inquiry communities, how it relates to practice, and what teachers learn from inquiry. In this third conception of inquiry, teacher learning is more than professional development. The authors discuss the cultures of inquiry communities. Time is a critical variable in facilitating learning. The notion of inquiry as stance also makes explicit as a problem teachers' role in designing and implementing initiatives for their own learning.

Cohen, D. K. (1989). Teaching practice: Plus ça change... In PP. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Contributing to educational change: Perspectives on research and practice* . Berkeley, CA: McCrutchan.

This essay addresses the question of why teaching seems to be resistant to change. It is argued that researchers' answers have suffered from defects both in how the question has been framed and where the answers are to be found. It is pointed out that, assuming that teaching can and should change, "barriers" to change have been sought, but most explanations on conservatism in teaching focus on external conditions such as finance, organizations, incentives, and the like. However, locating the fundamental barriers to change in instruction within teaching and learning, rather than outside of them, it is posited that teaching is a practice in which one human being tries to improve the ideas, capacities, emotional states, or organization of others. Efforts to make teaching more adventurous, spontaneous, and exciting run directly counter to the conservative tendencies in instructional practice, exemplified by the understanding of teaching as an attempt to "improve" the student. The nature of practice itself and its social constitution, perhaps, explain why so few teachers have embraced innovations. Even if restraining conditions were swept away, the nature of practice is such that most teachers and students would have great difficulty implementing instructional reforms that encourage spontaneous discovery learning.

Cohen, D. K., & Ball, D. L. (1990). Relations between policy and practice: A commentary. *Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 12* (3), 331-338.

Five case studies of implementation of instructional policy changes at the classroom level by elementary-school mathematics teachers are discussed. The case studies focus on California's new Mathematics Framework. The interaction between teacher practice and policy is emphasized. Teachers' inherited beliefs, knowledge, and existing practices are active in the interaction.

Cohen, D. K., McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (Eds.). (1993). *Teaching for understanding: Challenges for policy and practice* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Teaching for understanding is a concept that portrays teachers as guides, coaches, and facilitators of student learning. This book, which provides concrete illustrations of what teaching for understanding entails, is divided into chapters as follows: 1) "Introduction: New Visions of Teaching" (Milbrey W. McLaughlin, Joan E. Talbert); (2)"Collaboration as a

Context for Joining Teacher Learning with Learning about Teaching" (Deborah L. Ball, Sylvia S. Rundquist); (3) "Learning To Hear Voices: Inventing a New Pedagogy of Teacher Education" (Ruth M. Heaton, Magdalene Lampert); (4) "Deeply Rooted Change: A Tale of Learning To Teach Adventurously" (Suzanne M. Wilson with Carol Miller and Carol Yerkes); (5) "Creating Classroom Practice within the Context of a Restructured Professional Development School" (Sarah J. McCarthey, Penelope L. Peterson); (6) "Understanding Teaching in Context" (Joan E. Talbert, Milbrey W. McLaughlin); (7) "Pedagogy and Policy" (David K. Cohen, Carol A. Barnes); and (8) "Conclusion: A New Pedagogy for Policy?" (David K. Cohen, Carol A. Barnes). A theme running throughout the volume is that moving practice, research, and policy in directions that can enable and support the vision of teaching for understanding requires breaking out of routine ways of: thinking about practice; administering schools and classrooms; and formulating educational research and policy.

Comfort, L. K. (1985). Action research: A model for organizational learning. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 5* , 100-118.

"Traditionally, social research has relied on systematic methods to control variation in the collection of data in order to validate relationships observed among the social phenomena under study. Ironically, many critical problems in the actual operation of public organizations are not amenable to such rigorous controls. An alternative mode of analysis, action research, may prove more useful since it takes into account the dynamic nature of organizations, emphasizing the production of valid information, the element of free and informed choice by organization members, and the goal of engendering commitment to action by those involved. Simulated operations designed to enhance the performance of public agencies in unforeseen emergencies provide a setting in which to evaluate the effectiveness of action research as a tool for organizational problem-solving."

Conley, D. T. (1993). *Roadmap to restructuring: Policies, practices and the emerging visions of schooling* . Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Designed as a guide for practitioners, this book draws on over 600 sources to discuss school restructuring definitions, trends, and issues; achievements of a few select schools; and implementation techniques and strategies. Two overarching, indirectly stated issues pervading the reconceptualization of schooling are multiculturalism and a caring school staff. The book is organized into four parts. Part 1, Rationale and Context, presents a historical context for restructuring and a summary of the current motivations for, and implications of, educational restructuring. Part 2, Changing Roles and Responsibilities, examines the evolution of new roles for essentially all the groups that participate in public education. Part 3, Dimensions of Restructuring, explores the concepts of incremental and discontinuous change and extensively discusses current school restructuring activities along 12 dimensions: learner outcomes, curriculum, instruction, assessment, learning environment, technology, school-community relations, time schedules, governance, teacher leadership, personnel definitions and roles, and working relationships. Part 4, Process of Restructuring, captures the lessons being learned about the restructuring process and presents examples of strategies and techniques. Contains over 600 references.

Consortium for Policy Research in Education. (1996). *Public policy and school reform: A research summary* (36). Philadelphia: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

Educational policy alone will not create successful educational improvement. This summary presents key findings from 5 years of research on policy and finance, conducted by the Consortium for Policy Research in Education (CPRE). Key findings include: 1) U.S. schools have demonstrated important, positive changes in practice, attitude, and student achievement; 2) most states and many districts have adopted standards-based reforms; 3) education policy has not yet provided coherent, effective guidance on how to improve instruction; 4) reforms are not always realistic; 5) reformers often overemphasize structural changes and pay inadequate attention to instructional quality; 6) policymakers overlook the role that students could play in raising their achievement; and 7) funding is a key element of education reform and reform policy. Sections provide greater detail about the role and limits of policy, standards-based reform, the impact of policy on the classroom, intergovernmental relations and school policy, ways to build new capacity for school reform, factors that facilitate structural change, major trends in school finance, and ways to increase education productivity. A list of CPRE publications and consortium management centers is included.

Consortium for Policy Research in Education. (1996). *Policies and programs for professional development of teachers: Profiles of the states* . Philadelphia, PA: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

These profiles are a product of a 50-state study of state teacher professional development policies and programs for teachers conducted by the Consortium for Policy Research in Education. The primary purpose of the work is to provide an information base for state policymakers interested in improving teacher learning opportunities in their states. An accompanying report discusses the state of professional development for teachers and the states' roles in professional development, and it provides information on state initiatives, state requirements, state funding, induction programs, and state incentives as of 1996. Each state profile lists the number of teachers, average years of experience for teachers, percentage of teachers holding Master's degrees, and average teacher salary. Each profile provides information on the

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following topics: 1) education policy context; 2) the state role in professional development teacher certification policies, state-supported programs, and federal- or foundation-supported programs; 3) public funding for professional development ; 4) impact of state policies on local professional development; 5) teacher compensation for professional development; 6) other professional development opportunities; 7) contacts and information resources; 8) publications and reports; and 9) ordering information.

Cooler, D. D. (1986). *The education utility: The power to revitalize education and society* . Englewood Cliff, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

The Education Utility is an electronic delivery and management system that will provide instantly, to the desks of educators and students located anywhere in the world, massive quantities of continually updated instructional, interactive information including software programs, data bases, sophisticated graphics capabilities, news services, electronic mail, and other materials. All these materials will be stored or accessed through a main "host" computer. Individual educational facilities will be connected via a state network, to local education sites with adequate microcomputer capacity. Through its integration of technologies and vast information resources, the system will provide educational benefits for self-paced instruction, customization, student control, the management and updating of the explosion of information. The book is organized into chapters which each address an important aspect of the educational utility (e.g. Hardware and Software Interactions, Analyses of Relevant Public Policy Issues, Descriptions of how the Utility fits into current and future educational system, Issues related to the Preparation of Educators, User Support, and other Uses and Applications).

Council, N. R. (1996). *National science education standards: Observe, interact, change, learn* . Washington D.C.: National Academy Press.

The National Science Education Standards present a vision of a scientifically literate populace. The standards outline what students need to know, understand, and be able to do to be scientifically literate at different grade levels. They describe an educational system in which all students demonstrate high levels of performance, teachers are empowered to make the decisions essential for effective learning, interlocking communities of teachers and students are focused on learning science, and supportive educational programs and systems nurture achievement. After an introductory chapter and a chapter that outlines the overarching principles that underlie the vision of scientific literacy for all students, the National Science Education Standards are presented in six chapters. The standards for science teaching presented in Chapter 3 focus on what teachers know and do. Chapter 4, "Standards for Professional Development for Teachers of Science", focuses on how teachers develop professional knowledge and skill. The standards in Chapters 3 and 4 present a broad and deep view of science teaching that is based on the conviction that scientific inquiry is at the heart of science and science learning. The science education assessment standards are presented in Chapter 5 as criteria for judging the quality of assessment practices and apply equally to classroom-based and externally designed assessments and to formative and summative assessments. The content standards, organized by K-4, 5-8, and 9-12 grade levels, are found in Chapter 6. These standards provide expectations for the development of student understanding and ability over the course of K-12 education. Content is defined to include inquiry; the traditional subject areas of physical, life, and earth and space sciences; connections between science and technology; science in personal and social perspectives; and the history and nature of science. Chapter 7 contains the program standards which provide criteria for judging the quality of school and district science programs. The system standards in Chapter 8 consist of criteria for judging the performance of components of the science education system beyond the school and district: the people and entities, including education professionals and the broader community that supports the schools. Throughout the Standards, examples have been supplied that are based on actual practice and include a brief description of some of its features and a list of the standards that might be highlighted by the example.

Cousins, J. B., & Leithwood, K. A. (1986). Current empirical research on evaluation utilization. *Review of Educational Research, 56* (3), 331-364.

This paper reviews empirical research conducted during the past 15 years on the use of evaluation results. Sixty-five studies in education, mental health, and social services are described in terms of their methodological characteristics, their orientation toward dependent and independent variables and the relationships between such variables.

Cousins, J. B. (1996). Understanding organizational learning for educational leadership and school reform. In K. Leithwood, J. Chapman, D.Carson, PP. Hallinger, & A. Hart (Eds.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 589-652). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

The article is a review of organizational learning literature as it relates to educational reform. To get at these implications, he defines organizational learning, describes its dimensions and features, discusses issues currently being debated, and explores the factors and organizational variables that influence OL. Literature reviewed includes international, theoretical and empirical works. The discussion of OL definitions include organizational capacity for learning; social learning; how organizations represent knowledge (e.g. shared interpretations, mental maps, routines); behavioral versus cognitive focus in the literature; single and double loop learning; structural and interpretive perspectives of learning; forms of organizational memory; management of knowledge (how it is transmitted within the

organization); the role of experience in creating/acquiring knowledge; and gaining knowledge from the environment.

The author concludes that OL research is a productive framework for educational research. In particular, its comprehensiveness will accommodate the complexities of school reform and leadership. The author suggests 8 guidelines that OL literature suggests for the educational reform agenda: create/improve methods of receiving environmental stimulants of change; create strong systems for social learning; utilize planned learning opportunities; seek knowledge increases through PD as well as by recruiting new staff; train leaders; use a monitoring system to measure learning systems; keep policies and organizational routines consistent with learning systems; systematize and automate information storage and retrieval systems (taken from pp. 640-645).

Crow, G. M. (1998). Implications for leadership in collaborative schools. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: promises and pitfalls* (pp. 135-154). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

The talk of collaboration within schools and between schools and other service agencies, gives rise to the questions of who are the leaders and followers, how do we define leadership, and who is responsible and accountable for decisions or actions? The author develops a concept of leadership that is two-part: leadership as a mutual relationship of influence, acknowledging the many resources both parties have at their disposal to use to influence others; and leadership as systemic, individuals influencing the organizational structures such that leadership flows throughout the roles in the system in multiple directions. The author briefly reviews literature as it further explains systemic leadership (involving different individual and roles that change) and influence relations (reciprocal relations among all levels and individuals). Studies on school administrators seemed to center around role changes for principals, the political qualities and questions of accountability. Overall, the concept of leadership as an influence relationship points to issues of role changes, effects on costs, political negotiations, and accountability requirements. Leadership as systemic has implications for a possible expansion of resources, increase of costs, increased participation, and increased power struggles. These issues must be recognized if collaboration is to succeed.

Cusick, PP. A. (1981). A study of networks among professional staffs in secondary schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 17* (3), 114-138.

The author addresses the network of interactions among the staff of secondary schools and how that network affects the curriculum. Field methods were used to answer these questions in two large comprehensive secondary schools in a metropolitan area. The author identifies "network" as having two parts. The first, as a field denoting the ego- centered set of relations on an individual. The second, as the sum of all interactions of a certain kind in a certain place. The concluding model drawn from this description contains three parts: 1) the first part is a teachers' individual and ego-centered field from which he or she constructs an approach to students and teaching; 2) the second is a set of relationships between the teacher and some particular students who respond to and justify that teachers' approach; and 3) the third, is the network sum of all these fragmented approaches to teaching and students. The curriculum of a school is composed of the sum of all these disparate field of individual teachers. Implications of this fragmented and personalized curriculum are then examined by the author.

The author conducts a qualitative/ethnographic study, designed to describe and explain the networks of relations among the staffs (at the 2 schools previously mentioned) and to determine the effect of those interaction on the curriculum. The research study was guided by two primary questions 1)"What do members of the staff do together?" and 2)"What does what they do together have to do with curriculum?"

The author concludes that although both schools there were some very high quality efforts by individual teachers, and hence some excellent opportunities for some individual and aggressive students (pp.136), given a lack of collective focus or any effort to shape curriculum as a collective effort, the author raises serious concerns about "the neglect of the school collective" as either a motivating, rewarding, or supporting entity or as a pedagogical means to teaching social responsibility.

Dale, M. (1994). Learning organizations. In C. Mabey & PP. Isles (Eds.), *Managing learning* (pp. 22-34). New York: Routledge.

The author draws from literature to define a learning organization and its defining elements. She describes organizations as entities of their own, entities that can learn (purposefully gain knowledge and skills). A learning company is an ideal state in which "learning and working are synonymous" (Pedler, Boydell, and Burgoyne, 1988) . Learning organizations have climates which encourage individuals to develop to their full potential, includes human resource development as part of its central business strategy, includes customers, suppliers, and all others as part of its learning culture, and has a continuous process of organizational transformation (pp. 24). In such organizations, learning is the core of all operations. Being a part of a learning organization can be unsettling and challenging. One must learn to live with change; experience recurrent upsets to the internal harmony of the organization, and openly manage the conflicts that come with diversity. Managers must learn to share the decision making power and encourage discussion, debate, and questioning. They must believe that all people should be "treated in a developmental way" (pp. 32).

Darling-Hammond, L., & Wise, A. E. (1985). Beyond standardization: State standards and school improvement. *The Elementary School Journal, 85* (3), 315-336.

Given that schools do not fully operate as model bureaucracies, policymakers must understand how policies based on partial knowledge of means, ends, and norms will affect the different school districts. Data is drawn from in-depth interviews with 43 teachers of 3 large districts in the Mid-Atlantic States.Teachers responses to student- standards depended on the degree to which these policies constrained their ability to meet the needs of their students as they perceived them. The least flexible policies resulted in the most negative responses. Specifically, 45% of teachers were opposed to minimum competency testing, generally because a single test score does not adequately allow for differing student responses and abilities nor allow for differing district goals and available resources. 60% of teachers responded that standardized testing has affected their practice. Those who approve of the change feel the tests accent needed skill areas, while those who oppose it feel that students are missing other important areas that the tests do not cover and do not leave time for. Similarly, teachers report that competency-based testing do not always measure important areas of learning and stifle students who cannot perform well in the form required by the test. Teachers recognize the need for accountability in some form, but are frustrated when accountability measures interfere with teaching. Competency-based standards for teacher education met with similar negative reactions (41% opposed). The concept may be good, but teachers did not see how one could specify all the necessary skills a teacher should know or believe it desirable to routinize how teachers work with students. Research on the complexity of teaching tasks seems to support this negative view of competency-based teacher education. Certification tests resulted in divided opinions, with reasons including an increase in the professionalism of teaching and skepticism of teaching pedagogy. 60% of teachers opposed using tests for re-certifying teachers, mostly since these teachers would have a record that could be examined that would be more relevant to successful teaching than a test. Overall, the authors deem policy as a method of preventing gross errors or inadequacies. Attention to the principal's role as instructional leader, to school culture and climate, to shared school wide goals is a promising method of ensuring quality teaching. Policies can support these areas, though it will mean relying on people and their judgments--a risky method, though possibly no more so than the so-far ineffective prescriptive methods.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76* (8), 597-604.

The authors study the new institutional forms that support teacher's professional growth in ways consistent with conceptions of *teaching and learning for understanding*. The authors assess the ways in which existing arrangements can be rethought or redesigned to support both reformers visions of practice and teacher's professional growth. Finally, the authors consider aspects of the macro education policy context that foster or impede teacher's incentives and ability to acquire new knowledge, skills and conceptions of practice.

The authors provide specific examples of institutions such as professional development schools (PDS), teacher-to-teacher and school-to-school networks, partnerships with neighborhood-based youth organization and involvement in activities at district, regional or national levels as institutional forms that are effective in supporting professional growth and learning for understanding. The authors suggest the policy implications for sustaining healthy extra-school opportunities for professional collaboration are three-fold: 1) policy must create significant professional roles for teachers in many areas of practice; 2) funding must be directed to these components of a professional infrastructure that supports teacher participation and learning; 3) policy supports must focus on stimulating the environment and nurturing high-quality learning communities of teachers (rather than on particular institutional forms or promises of permanence.

The authors conclude with the recommendations that existing policies and practices must be assessed in terms of their compatibility with 2 cornerstones of the reform agenda: a learner-centered view of teaching and a career-long conception of teacher learning, with the authors finally suggesting that policy change in areas including (and not limited to) teacher education institutions, evaluation, licensing, testing, leadership roles of administrators and supervisors.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1995). Changing conceptions of teaching and teacher development. *Teacher Education Quarterly, Fall* , 9-26.

The author believes that the preparation, induction, and professional development of teachers is the core issue of educational reform. Current school restructuring is looking at doing more than just improving existing methods; it is looking at the overall redesign of schooling. Any new design must personalize schooling for students, empower student-adult relationships, and provide a "thinking curriculum" (pp. 11) in a collaborative environment. "School structures allow teachers to engage in more personalized and extended work with students in the United States, achievement gains are quite substantial, along with more positive feelings toward self and school, and more positive behavior" (pp. 11). Many current structures, however, are based on the assumptions that teaching does not involve student thinking. We know that students must construct their own knowledge, and that there is more than one way to learn. Many current teacher evaluation policies work against the type of teaching that fosters such student learning. Teachers need to take charge of setting their own professional standards to promote good teaching, and the NBPTS standards are a good beginning. These standards hold strong implications for teacher preparation and induction, as future teachers need to experience the kind of teaching we expect from them. New teachers need to be placed in settings that will encourage good teaching, rather than in a setting that forces them to cope with conflicting demands that even skilled experienced

teachers have difficulties with.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *The right to learn: A blueprint for creating schools that work* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

The author introduces, in the chapter, the historical forces leading to the current status of the U.S. educational system and barriers to change. She states that schools are now being asked to teach for understanding and for diversity, new demands that will require a paradigm shift from designing controls to developing capacity. Darling-Hammond points out the reasons for previous failing reform movement, including Hirsch's current efforts. She believes that our current system has performed as well as it can, and that our society must now "re-create" (pp. 27) a new system to meet our needs. Her book outlines "the kinds of policy and professional education that could support democratic education for all students," (pp. 36) as opposed to the occasional exceptions of good schools we have now.

This chapter examines how past policies produced bureaucratic schools and assembly-line teaching and how current school failures continue to be linked to the bureaucratization of schools. Influences on schools include scientific management characteristics like large "factory" schools, increased paperwork, and hierarchical control and testing to standards. Also, behaviorists learning theories, ongoing current controls and proscribed testing have had lasting affects o schools. The author both describes the dysfunctional outcomes of these influences and the shape of potential alternatives. Study (with Arthur Wise) includes in-depth interviews with 46 teachers in 3 districts of 3 different states to learn the effects of policies on teachers' practice. 47% elementary, 53% secondary of all subject areas, representative of US teachers in early 1980's in age, experience and education. 2 suburban districts with excellence reputation, 1 struggling urban district. All 3 implementing state and local accountability mechanisms focusing on tightly prescribed current and increased student testing.

Author describes schools that focus on teaching and learning for understanding, a focus that must exist to develop individuals that can evaluate and defend ideas with careful reasoning, independently inquire into problems, produce high-quality work and understand the standards that measure that work. The author then explains 9 key features of environments that support this type of learning and the policy implications of each. These features are seen as necessary and insufficient if approached in a piecemeal fashion. 1)"Active in-depth learning" requiring students to analyze, evaluate, synthesize, and reason in a meaningful discipline centered context. This will require policies that focus on core concepts rather than superficial coverage of facts, assessments that measure more than recall and recognition of facts, courses development and time allocations that support this type of learning, and teacher evaluation methods that recognize teachers engaged in activity-based learning. 2) "Emphasis on Authentic Performance" with actual audiences for students' learning and multiple criteria with which to measure performance. Policy implications include replacing norm referenced with criterion-referenced assessments. 3) "Attention to Development" of children, organizing schools around their development. Teacher and administration licensing should ensure a foundation of knowledge about learning and development, as well as current policies encouraging practices that acknowledge a wide variation in development. 4)"Appreciation for Diversity" of intelligences, cultural backgrounds, and past experiences. Increasing and embracing heterogeneity will require eliminating tracking and segregating programs, and increasing training of teachers in how to effectively utilize the benefits of heterogeneity in reciprocal teaching and cooperative learning strategies. 5)"Opportunities for collaborative Learning" must be part of the school structure, with policies supporting a stronger base of teacher knowledge for this more complex type of practice. 6)"A collective Perspective Across the School," meaning shared norms that prevent students from feeling divided by different teachers' expectations. Policies should be aimed at the whole school in such a way that the collective can argue through strategies and come to consensus, thereby owning the decisions. 7) "Structures for Caring" allowing students and teachers to develop relationships over periods longer than one school year, relationships based on mutual respect. Authoritative practices, rather than permissiveness or authoritarianism, can accomplish this by setting "limits and consequences within a context that fosters dialogue, explicit teaching about how to assume responsibility, and democratic decision making" (pp. 138). Supportive policies are those that strengthen educator preparation, promote personalization of schools, and establish curricula that develop respect and empathy. 8) "Support for Democratic Learning" through access to democratic participation in school. Policies should support diversity in classroom learning. "The success of such changes is only as probable as the strength of educators' preparation for complex, responsive forms of practice." (PP. 144). 9) "Connections to Family and Community" to deepen the relationships that support child development. These may include "continuing educational programs for adults, student internships with local businesses, collaborations with community-based recreation and youth service organizations, and partnerships with health care and social service agencies." (PP.146).

High performing schools are sometimes dismissed as unrepeatable, but they have certain structural features in common. These are tailored to each specific location, but have the same core elements. 1) Excellent schools have developed a collective set of beliefs and goals for learning. These are visible in the graduation standards and standards of performance students are held to. Making student work public is part of developing accountability for these goals. 2) Structures for learning allow teachers to know and care for students as individuals and teach the whole person, as opposed to highly departmentalized schools. Teachers fill the roles of teacher, counselor, advisor and coach. 3) Decision making is structured to reflect what happens in the classroom. Just as students are involved in their own learning, teachers are involved in the governance of the school at all levels: curriculum, professional development, staffing, budgeting, and peer evaluations.

With these structures are changed incentives for teachers and students. Teachers receive reduced pupil loads, time for

shared work, opportunities for ownership and invention, support for individual interests, opportunities for leadership, and internally developed standards and assessments. Student incentives are high standards coupled with strong supports, a caring atmosphere, home and school connections, choice, participation, and autonomy.

In order to operate as they do, restructured schools work on at least 3 organizational principles that differ from traditional schools and are similar to those found in high-performance businesses. First, almost everyone teaches--there is no distinction between doers and planners as Frederick Taylor encouraged. Second, staff are organized as collaborative teams, eliminating the need for supervisor-coordinator positions. Third, students and teachers have fewer but longer classes per day, reducing the number of classes teachers prepare for while increasing the time they have for each student. This also makes more professional time available for teachers.

The author compares student and teacher schedules, student-teacher ratios, and numbers of support staff, and hours of joint planning time far traditional schools and restructuring schools in the U.S. Many examples of restructured schedules and staffing are provided. Also, she notes the striking contrasts staffing of US schools to other nations.

To restructure schools outside the boundaries of bureaucracies (with their hierarchy, extensive specialization, and elaborate monitoring systems), policies must be based on an alternate logic. Such policies may include a flatter structure of hierarchy to increase the number of teachers in classrooms, increased cross-discipline knowledge and knowledge of learning for teacher licensing, less rigid time requirements for specific subject areas, less mandates for teaching of "extras" (drug education, bicycle safety, fire prevention, etc.), and less restrictive staffing requirements.

This chapter elaborates the balance needed between top-down and bottom-up forces of change. Whereas standards have been viewed by some as the way to force schools to improve and by others as a constraint to school reform, the author proposed standards as "guideposts, not straitjackets, for building curriculum, assessments, and professional development opportunities, and when they are used to focus and mobilize system resources rather than to punish students and schools" (pp. 213). Important elements include coherence of policies and a focus on teaching and learning . Standards that promote "inside-out change" (pp. 225) will be dynamic, constructivist, function as a roadmap not a manual, and allow for localities to adopt and adapt them to their specific context. Capacity building will be the focus, rather than a reward-and-punishment approach. Standards should ensure professional accountability, organizational accountability, and create safeguards for students and schools so that none "fall through the cracks." The author details New York State's recent reforms as an example, stressing the delicate balance required in developing policies that promote change in failing schools without constraining already reforming or succeeding schools. Note: 2 diagrams may be of interest to those looking at a L.C. topology or conceptual map., pp. 222, and 253.

A critical first step to improving our educational system is to level the field by ensuring equal access for all students to adequate resources and skilled and knowledgeable teachers. Many studies show that vast disparities in funding for education are correlated with the socio-economic background of the students and their community. Studies further show that students of similar achievement levels perform better in higher funded schools, with better prepared teachers, and in a more advanced class, while performing more poorly in less funded schools, with more poorly trained teachers, and in lower tracks of the curriculum. It is common in US schools to find teachers with the least training and least credentialing and least content knowledge in charge of the most challenging groups of students that most need good teaching. Court cases challenging school funding patterns have resulted in 10 of 31 filed cases naming the states school finance scheme unconstitutional. Reasons are varied, but the author believes the increasing use of performance standards by states will promote school finance changes-states that set clear expectations of student achievement in schools will be required legally to provide the minimal amount of resources needed to reach those levels of achievement. These opportunity-to-learn standards were first introduced by national Council on Education Standards and Testing (NCEST, 1992). Such standards will link will equalized funding and link with less checklist-oriented professional school reviews such as NY states school Quality Review program.

In order to teach students in the way new standards suggests, teachers need to thoroughly know the subject matter, strong foundation in pedagogical content knowledge, understanding of child development, recognition of the differences among students coming from culture, language, family, community, gender and the like, understanding of motivations fro learning, knowledge of different kinds of learning, knowledge of assessment strategies, and teaching strategies, knowledge of curriculum resources and technologies, recognition of the role of collaboration in learning, and ability to analyze and reflect on their teaching practice. Standards for this knowledge base and for the authorized training institutions for these teachers should be self-regulated in ways similar to medicine and low professions. On-going peer reviews and licensing measures to high professional standards with an attention to caring for students are proposed as positive moves toward increasing the professional ism of teaching. The author counters arguments of lack of funds, fears of a less responsive profession and suggests that there are appropriate roles for governments, communities, parents and educators. NCTAF, INTASC, and National Boards for Professional Teaching Standards are all positive moves, though none are as widespread and fully implemented as the author would hope to see. Professional standards for teaching should be coupled with productive strategies for teacher preservice training and a reconceptualization of the teaching career. The author shares evidence of programs and other countries that support these ideas.

The goals of policymaking should be 1) "to develop the capacity of schools and teachers to create practices that reflect what is now known about effective ways to teach and learn" (pp. 332), (2) to "set publicly adopted goals and enact professional standards" (pp. 332) as opposed to more prescribed details of structure, staffing and managing, and (3) to make decisions out of a dialogue among parents, policymakers, teachers, and researchers. A set of interlocking

initiatives focused jointly on students and challenging content should cover areas of curriculum, assessment, teacher education, teacher evaluation, school funding, school structures, a collective school culture, and accountability.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1999). Target time towards teachers. *Journal of staff development, 20* (2), 31-36.

This article suggests that if reformers are willing to think outside the box that Fredrick Taylor imposed on education nearly a century ago it would be possible to improve teacher and student learning. The author outlines a variety of efficiency, assembly-line strategies utilized by American educational systems that have reduced the effectiveness of schools and disenfranchised teachers. She uses cross-country comparisons to demonstrate that teachers have reduced opportunity for learning and planning compared to foreign colleagues and argues that this results in conditions the isolate teachers and hinder their ability to teach effectively. She then uses several American school models, such as Central Park East, to suggest the possibilities for restructuring in America. The author delineates a variety of strategies that she argues hold promise for effective school reform. They are: 1) reduce teacher isolation by affording shared planning time, common curricular goals, and collegial intercourse. 2) reduce fragmentation in teaching and other school services to strengthen relationships and insure deeper knowledge of learners, 3) use time more effectively and reduce teaching loads, 4) develop long-term strategies that have teachers as their central investment point of schools, 5) undertake comprehensive review of school practices, schedules, resources, knowledge, and skills to identify areas of need, and 6) view professional development as central to the act of teaching.

Dauber, S. L., & Epstein, J. (1989). *Parents attitudes and practices of involvement in inner-city elementary and middle schools*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting.

This study used data drawn from about 2,300 parents of children in eight Chapter 1, inner city Baltimore (Maryland) elementary and middle schools to examine the extent of parent involvement at home and at school. Also mined was the extent to which the schools used practices designed to involve parents. Survey questionnaires included over 75 items on: 1) parent attitudes toward their children's school; 2) school subjects parents wanted to know more about; 3) the frequency of various forms of parent involvement in children's education; 4) the degree to which school programs and teacher practices informed and involved parents in children's education; 5) what workshop topics parents would select; 6) times of day parents preferred for school meetings or conferences; 7) amount of time children spent on homework; 8) whether parents helped with homework; and 9) background information about parents' education, work, and family size. Parents reported involvement at school. They expressed a desire for advice about how to help their children at home and better information from schools about what their children were doing and were expected to do in school. The level of parent involvement was directly linked to specific school practices designed to encourage parent involvement at school and guide parents in helping at home.

Davies, D. (1989). *Poor parents, teachers and schools: Comments about practice, policy and research*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Conference.

Research has shown that family and community involvement in education is linked to healthy child development and to children's academic and social success in school. Family participation can also enhance adult personal development and empowerment, aid community problem-solving through collaboration, and advance the prospects for a more democratic and equitable society. Despite all these benefits, many American public schools (including most suburban schools) allow social class barriers to inhibit good relationships with the families and communities they serve. Both U.S. and Western European educators are aware that improved connections are needed to reduce the high levels of academic and social failure among poor urban children. This paper describes a Schools Reaching Out project at two elementary schools in Boston and New York City that attempts to address these problems. Based on the research of James Comer, Joyce Epstein, Vire Bronfenbrenner, Paul Seeley, and the author's previous studies in Boston, Portugal, and Liverpool, the project: has established a parent center in each school, features activities to increase the family's "cultural capital," stresses parent involvement in decision-making at school, and fosters teacher-generated guidance and materials for home instruction by parents. Various concerns about attitudes and organizational change realities area addressed, and a research agenda focused on success for all children, teacher development, and community-parent contributions to school change is outlined.

Dewey, J. (1966). *Democracy and education* . New York: Free Press.

Democracy and Education embodies an endeavor to detect and state the ideas implied in a democratic society and to apply these ideas to the problems of the enterprise of education. The discussion includes an indication of the constructive aims and methods of public education as seen from this point of view, and a critical estimate of the theories of knowing and moral development which were formulated in earlier social conditions, but which still operate, in societies nominally democratic to hamper the adequate realization of the democratic ideal. The philosophy stated in this book connects the growth of democracy with development of the experimental method in the sciences, evolutionary ideas in the biological sciences, and the industrial reorganization, and is concerned to point out the changes in subject matter and method of education indicated by these developments.

Dixon, N. (1994). *The organizational learning cycle: How we can learn collectively* . Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill.

Dixon provides a sophisticated portrayal of basic learning processes and organizational life. The author demonstrates that organizations, which learn effectively, tend to work via a cycle, in much the same way that individuals learning in a cyclic process. Yet because organizational learning is about the collective rather than the individual the cycle is more complex. it involves multiple stakeholders and necessitates inter-organizational dialogue to collectively interpret organizational action and information. Dixon suggests that the benefit of collective learning is the ability of the organization to transform itself; to change in response to an agreed vision or to external constraints. Dixon's book contains case examples from private and public organizations.

Drucker, PP. (1996). Toward the new organization. In F. Hesselbein, M. Goldsmith, & R. Beckhard (Eds.), *Organization of the future* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

This compendium of essays written by some of the world's top authors, consultants and leaders in the field of organization and management science, provides a range of perspectives on leadership and form/structure for the organizations of tomorrow. The various essays offer practical insights on surviving and prospering in a time of turbulence and unprecedented change. Contemporary issues covered in this volume include creating adaptive capacity in organizations, organizational learning transformational leadership, high performance cultures and supporting work and family life balance.

In Drucker's introduction, he provides a chronicle that details the history and evolution of organizations (post WWII) and points toward the need for changes in paradigms and theories of what we mean by "organization" (pp.4). Drucker stresses that organizations are more than structure, economics and results in the market place, but that above all, organizations are social. Thus, its (organizations) purpose must therefore be to make the strengths of people effective and their weaknesses irrelevant (pp.5). Drucker suggests that an organization is not just a tool, but rather that it bespeaks values; it bespeaks the personality of a business, a nonprofit enterprise or a government agency. It is both defined by and defines a specific enterprise's results. The most novel fact, and this volume clearly expresses it, is that we are rapidly moving toward a plurality and pluralism of organizations, rapidly moving toward the new organizations (pp6).

Duffy, F. M. (1996). *Designing high-performance schools: A practical guide to organizational reengineering* . Delray Beach, FL: St. Lucie Press.

This book presents step-by-step model a school or district can use to redesign its structures, flow of information, and web of relationships, beliefs, and values. The text is divided into three sections. The first section describes what a high-performance school is and should look like. It also provides an overview of the educational reform movement in this country and a brief introduction to this redesign model. The second section contains specific instructions and worksheets to be used in the various stages of reform and redesign. The steps in this model are 1) Preparing for redesign (including identifying a starting point, forming a steering committee, building support, redefining vision and mission statements), 2) Redesigning (including diagnosing the technical and social systems, developing and implementing redesign proposals, and evaluating the redesign proposal), 3) Achieving permanence and diffusion (from the perspective that you start in one target cluster of schools and you seek to expand to an entire district), 4) and Continuous improvement of schooling (recognizing that once changes are made it must become a continuous process of improving in order to stay a high-performance organization). The third section of the text provides base knowledge in change theory, interpersonal and group dynamics, supervision, and working with consultants. This information supports the processes described in section two.

Overall, the model presented here is cognizant of systems theory and recognizes the political negotiations required in change processes. It also utilizes a trainer of trainers model as the redesign process expands from the initial school(s) to the entire district. It is written in a very rational, linear manner though it acknowledges that social systems are not linear. It also is written with the expectation that a school district has the funding to hire a consultant for the possible 3 years the redesign process may take.

Duncan, R., & Weiss, A. (1979). Organizational learning: Implications for organizational design. In B. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 75-123). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

"Macro organizational theorists (Thompson, 1967; Terreberry, 1967) have implied the notion of organization learning, but have never identified the processes involved. There is no question that the concept of organizational learning is complex and difficult to specify. However, it remains central to our understanding of how organizations and their members behave over time. This paper develops a concept of the process within the organization by which organizational members develop knowledge about action-outcome relationships and the effect of the environment on these relationships. Organizational learning is defined as different from individual learning. Having developed this conceptualization of organizational learning, a "middle range" theory of organizational learning as it relates to the organizational design process is presented."

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Education Commission of the States. (1996). *Standards and education: A roadmap for state policymakers* . Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

The publication Standards and Education is based on the premise that one way to address the challenges facing American education is to develop standards for education against which we can judge the quality of curricula and instruction and promote higher levels of achievement for all students. The paper suggests that a standards based reform movement would allow for the deregulation of state and local education programs thus providing local institutions with the autonomy to meet the individual needs of learners in their community. It is argued that setting standards can lead to improvement in student performance. District improvement in Colorado and Maryland as well as the College Board's "Equity 2000" program and the City University of New York's standards are offered as evidence to support the use of standards. Standards that define the goals of education but allow locally designed approaches to meeting those goals are described. Delaware, Iowa, and Colorado are used as exemplars. The paper also describes lessons learned in the various localities that assisted the implementation of standards. The steps identified include 1) Involve the public in making decisions about standards, 2) Develop a comprehensive communications strategy, 3) Deepen political leadership, 4) Involve teachers from the beginning, 5) Insist that standards apply to all students, 6) Allow adequate time to develop rigorous standards, 7) Align other state policies to standards, 8) Connect standards to other reforms, 9) Provide support for districts implementing standards, 10) Develop an accountability system that regularly involves and reports to the public, 11) Collaborate with policy makers in other states.

Education Week. (1998, Jan. 8, 1998). Quality Counts '98: The urban challenge. *Education Week, 17* .

This special edition provides a detailed analysis of urban education in each of the 50 states using data from the federal government and a survey of 74 large city districts conducted in collaboration with the Council of the Great City Schools. Though each state is rated individually in each category, overall, the states received a grade of C in academic standards and assessment, quality of teaching, school environment, and the use of resources. This is the same grade as one year ago, though this edition attempts to show that states are making progress.

Elmore, R. F., Abelmann, C. H., & Fuhrman, S. H. (1996). The new accountability in state education reform: From process to performance. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance-based reform in education* (pp. 65-98). Washington D.C.: Brookings.

The authors describe the recent trend in education from input/ process standards to what they call "the new educational accountability" which is based on standards, assessment and a series of sanctions and incentives. A 1993 CPRE survey found that forty-three states were moving towards performance based accountability. The survey also revealed that states are increasing publicly reporting on local school and district performance and increasingly consequences are being attached to performance levels. There is a shift from paper reviews of districts and classrooms to peer visits and classroom observations. The chapter goes on to use the experiences of Mississippi and Kentucky to describe some of the issues involved in implementing "the new educational accountability". The authors describe ten design features of accountability systems. They include 1) defined goal of system, 2) defined levels of accountability, 3) standards of accountability, 4) types of assessment, 5) defined subject areas to be assessed, 6) grades tested, 7) graduation test, 8) non-cognitive indexes, 9) rewards, and sanctions or assistance. The authors identify design problems which have presented in Kentucky and Mississippi. The first is defining and justifying desired levels of performance. The second is determining the appropriate rate at which student improvement should occur. The third is at what level is increased performance expected; the individual student, the class, the school, or the district. A fourth problem, public confidence in the system is a result of the technical complexity of the accountability systems. A final problem is that the process by which schools are sorted is not clearly understood by teachers thus limiting the motivational value of the reform. The chapter identifies issues associated with the implementation of the new accountability systems including the appearance of perverse performance incentives, perceptions of fairness, the states capacity to deliver necessary resources and technical capacity to fully implement the accountability system, and the need for an iterative implementation process. Political issues associated with the new accountability systems include constituency pressures, resource constraints, lack of political stability, limited public and educator understanding off the system, and the persistence of input and process standards. The authors identify five challenges for states moving toward educational accountability. They are making the systems understandable and defensible, resolving issues of fairness, focusing incentives for improvement, developing state capacity, and creating a stable political environment for reform.

Elmore, R. (1997). *Investing in teacher learning: Staff development and instructional improvement in Community School District #2, New York City* . Washington D.C.: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

This paper describes how one New York City school district uses staff development to change instruction system-wide, discussing the role local school districts play in systemic school improvement and the role of professional development in connecting reform policy to classroom practice. The paper emphasizes the district's sustained attention to school improvement through professional development. The district's improvement strategy includes: 1) a set of organizing principles about the process of systemic change and the role of professional development in that process and 2) a set of specific activities that emphasize system-wide improvement of instruction. Its staff development has distinctively organized professional development models. Organizing principles include: focusing only on instruction; viewing

instructional change as a long, multi-stage process; sharing expertise to drive instructional change; emphasizing system-wide improvement; working together to generate good ideas; setting clear expectations, then decentralizing; and promoting collegiality, caring, and respect. Specific professional development models include the professional development laboratory; instructional consulting services; inter-visitation and peer networks; off-site training; and oversight and principal site visits. This project's professional development is kept visible in the district budget, with the district committed to spending a specific proportion of the budget as an expression of the priority it places on professional development. The district uses multi-pocket budgeting to support this effort. Four appendixes present sample agendas, schedules, and forms and a description of one program.

Epstein, J. (1986). Parents reactions to teacher practices of parent involvement. *Elementary School Journal, 86* (3), 277-294.

Presents the findings of a survey of parents' experiences with different kinds of parent involvement. Views school and family relations from the parents' perspective and suggests that parents favor programs that stress cooperation between school and home.

Fraut, M. (1995). Professional knowledge within a client-centered orientation. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional Development in Education* (pp. 227-254). New York: Teachers College Press.

The argument that professions should be self-regulating and individual professionals autonomous is complex and increasingly under attack. Both teachers and the public have become increasingly depressed about the state of education, and rather than argue about whether teaching fits or ought to fit criteria derived from other professions, the author constructs a "positive model" for the future role of teachers that includes their relationship with the public. The model has three conceptual components: 1) the professional practitioner which includes processes for acquiring information about students, routinized actions and skilled behavior, planning, decision-making, problem solving and meta processes such as assessing, evaluating and controlling, 2) the professional school which includes staff relations and professional development for serving the interests of clients/students/public, and 3) a framework for determining client needs which focuses on values and the moral commitment to serve the interests of students and to take into proper account the views of students and parents.

Evans-Stout, K. (1998). Implications for collaborative instructional practice. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 121-134). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Evans-Stout discusses the background of teacher teaming in instruction, noting the lack of evidence linking it to improved student achievement. Teachers in instructional teams hold promise for increasing creativity, increased assistance with difficult students, decreased autonomy, decreased "sense of the flow of instruction" (pp.126), and increased tension among teachers. Currently, education has a more child- centered and culturally rooted approach resulting in models such as whole language, problem solving in science, and process writing. This conflicts with the strong norms of the status quo. The author recommends four conditions necessary to improve instruction through teaming: time for collaboration; trust among those involved; tenacity through the learning process; and a shift from shallow to deep discussions on practice, values, instructional methods and conceptions of learning.

Featherstone, H., Smith, S. PP., Beasley, K., Corbin, D., & Shank, C. (1995). *Expanding the equation: Learning mathematics through teaching in new ways* (95-1). East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

As reformers urge elementary and secondary school teachers to teach mathematics in new ways that highlight problem solving and engage students in important mathematical ideas, researchers have been pointing out that few public school teachers know mathematics in the ways that they would need to know it in order to teach in these new ways. These researchers point to deficiencies in teachers substantive knowledge (their understanding of the "stuff" of mathematics), in their syntactic knowledge (their understanding of what mathematicians do and of the nature of mathematical evidence), and in their attitudes towards the subject matter; they raise questions about the possibilities for addressing these difficulties through school-based staff development or university-based mathematics courses. The present study explores the possibility that changes in teachers' own teaching practices may provide opportunities for learning of and about mathematics. The study examines the cases of three primary teachers who, influenced by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) "Standards," made significant changes in the way that they taught second and third grade mathematics and who also reported significant changes in their understandings of topics in elementary math, their attitudes toward the subject matter, and beliefs about what it means to do math. The conclusion looks at some of the reasons that teaching math in new ways may help elementary teachers to learn some of what reformers say they need to know of and about mathematics. Contains 31 references.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Floden, R. E. (1980). A consumer's guide to teacher development. *Journal of Staff Development, 1* (2), 126-147.

Three approaches to teacher education, each of which is characterized as "developmental" are examined. The first evolved from research developed at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin, and is based on a formulation of stages teachers pass through as they gain teaching experience. Identified as "stages of concern", this approach focuses upon the teacher's progress from concern for survival, through mastery of teaching tasks, to concern about their impact on pupils' learning. The second approach, based on theories of cognitive development resulting from research at the University of Minnesota, advocates emphasizing adult development and maturity as one key to increased teacher effectiveness. Higher stages of development are seen as involving greater complexity and differentiation of function enabling the individual to cope with a greater variety of situations in teaching. The third approach, known as "a developmental style of in-service", is largely the work of practitioners. Teachers' centers offer a contemporary expression of this orientation. For each approach an analysis of recommended goals and strategies is offered, and a critique of its justification is presented.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1983). Learning to teach. In L. S. Shulman & G. Sykes (Eds.), *Handbook of teaching and policy* (pp. 150-170). New York: MacMillan.

This chapter is based on three premises: "1) that formal arrangements for teaching teachers and helping them to improve do not fit with what we know about how teachers learn to teach and get better at teaching over time; 2) that informal influences are far more salient in learning to teach, but have often negative educational effects; 3) that creating appropriate arrangements to support teachers' learning involves changing not only what we *do* , but also how we *think* about learning to teach throughout the teacher's career" (pp. 150). The chapter is broken down into four sections, based chronologically on a teacher's learning. The first talks about the early influences on a teacher, those before he or she begins formal training. These are described from evolutionary, psychoanalytic, socialization, and biographic stances. The second section relates the formal preservice phase of teacher learning. This includes the formal coursework and the "learning by doing" student teaching experience. Though research is scant, the author discounts the idea that this short time period could be responsible for the main formation of a teacher. More likely, this formal preparation could lay a foundation for beginning teaching competence and continuous learning. The third section of the chapter deals with the induction phase of learning to teach, those first years of "real" teaching. Some research suggests that a teacher's first year determines whether he or she will continue and what kind of teacher they will become, though no long term research has been done to link a teacher's first year's experience with later success or failure. Other research looks at the typical problems beginning teachers face and the type of support that is helpful and effective. "Survival" is a typical beginner's objective. The final section of the chapter looks at the in-service phase of a teacher's learning. This is viewed from two perspectives: 1) a teacher-centered approach, utilizing knowledge of a teacher's stages of development; 2) the school setting as the source of learning, centering on various collaborative and collegial interactions as sources of influence for the teacher. The conclusion of the chapter links the four phases of teacher learning with the author's initial premises.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Floden, R. E. (1986). The cultures of teaching. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (pp. 505-526). New York: MacMillan.

This chapter reviews research about the meaning of teaching to teachers and the origins of those meanings. This study of cultures is important in making predictions of how teachers will react/respond to implementation of policies, in deciding how to attract and keep talented individuals in the field of teaching, and in tapping the underutilized source of teacher' knowledge in improving teaching and learning. In answer to the question "What do we know about the cultures of teaching?" (pp. 506), the authors point out a tension in teachers' relationships with students: teachers with various levels of experience struggle with the balance between maintaining control and order and forming bonds of closeness and friendship with students. Little attention in the literature has been given to norms of treating students fairly or promoting the learning of all. Teachers' views towards relationships with other teachers vary from protecting one's autonomy in the classroom, to needing support of peers, to desiring more collegial working, to dealing with difficult instructional problems. The relationship with administrators has shifted somewhat with the rise in collective bargaining, but there still remains a norm of trading cooperation with the principal's policies for the principal providing a buffer from intrusive external forces and support for classroom discipline procedures. With parents, teachers seem to prefer alliances only with those parents who support the teacher and do not make too many or too difficult demands of the teacher. Teaching provides more intrinsic rewards (affection of students, collegial stimulation and support, satisfaction of providing a public service) than extrinsic rewards (salary, flexible schedule, power, status) though some of these intrinsic rewards are declining with the increase of difficulties in teaching certain students and the increase of physically harmful incidences. Few researchers report in the literature about the knowledge base of teachers. Those that do, talk about the use of practical knowledge to solve tensions and work through complexities. A second research question of this literature review is "What do we know about the origins of these cultural patterns?" (pp. 506). Generally, the authors look at various influences that support the theme that "cultures of teaching are shaped by the contexts of teaching" (pp. 515). The researchers final research question is "What do we know about how teachers acquire a cultural repertoire in teaching?" (pp. 506). In exploring this question in the literature, the authors suggest some explanations based on the socialization of teachers (learning from peers) and other explanations look at an individual developmental process of the individual teachers. The authors conclude three major shifts have taken place in the literature over time: it is no longer possible to think of a uniform culture of teaching; male-dominated professional and business models do not adequately explain the female-dominated occupation of teaching; and teachers are more and more being viewed as active participants rather than passive recipients of external influences.

Fessler, R. (1995). Dynamics of teacher career stages. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 171-192). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author suggests that the dynamics of what teachers are experiencing in different stages of their careers can serve as a foundation for planning appropriate actions to support their changing personal and professional growth needs. This chapter presents the *Teacher Career Cycle Model* as a framework for understanding the stages teachers experience in their careers. (Previous work that influenced the development of this model includes Fuller and Bown, 1975; Unrich and Turner, 1970; Gregore, 1973; Katz, 1972; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993). The process and theory used for model building is described (pp.180) and the implications for teacher growth and development research are considered. The components of the career cycle include Preservice, Induction, Competency building, Enthusiasm and Growth, Career Frustration, Career Stability, and Career Wind-Down. Personal and Organizational environment components interact and influence the cycle. (The model is similar in orientation to models offered by Vonk and Huberman). The ideas of these cycles suggest both an aligning and broadening of the notion of staff development and professional growth to include concern for personal needs and problems of teachers and to identify personalized support systems for teachers at various stages in their career cycles.

Fiol, C. M., & Lyles, M. A. (1985). Organizational learning. *Academy of Management Review, 10* , 803-813.

"No theory or model of organizational learning has widespread acceptance. This paper clarifies the distinction between organizational learning and organizational adaptation and shows that change does not necessarily imply learning. There are different levels of learning, each having a different impact on the strategic management of the firm."

Firestone, W. A., & Bader, B.D. (1991). Professionalism or bureaucracy? Redesigning teaching. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 13* (1), 67-86.

This study looks at three districts that redesigned teaching, two with career ladders and one with shared governance. The reforms took two directions-- professional and bureaucratic--that had important consequences for the process and the outcomes of the redesigning of teaching. Many factors were encompassed in the direction taken, including how districts addressed certain dimensions of job and organizational design--that is, authority and autonomy, collegiality, rank and remuneration, task variety, and organizational shape. Political factors that shaped the direction of development included the state program, the support of the board, the vision of the superintendent, and the interactions of board, superintendent, teachers, and teachers' associations."

Firestone, W. A., Bader, B. D., Massel, D., & Rosenblum, S. (1992). Recent trends in state educational reform: Assessment and prospects. *Teachers College Record, 94* (2), 254-277.

An important reason for limited progress in school reform in changing what and how well students' learn, is that the governance system is fragmented along two dimensions: the vertical one representing relationships between states and districts and the horizontal one reflecting articulation among policies at each level. The authors examine how state and district policies in the 1980's address the challenges of developing policies that promote higher order thinking for all students and increasing the coherence in state educational reform.

Information comes from a study of the progress of educational reforms in six states--Arizona, California, Florida, Georgia, Minnesota and Pennsylvania-- between 1983-1990. The researchers made numerous site visits to the states capitals and to twenty-one districts in those states. Additional information was obtained through documents as well as phone interviews. All the information was supplemented by tracking the reform literature and reports on state policy and its impact during this period.

This analysis suggests that the limit to policy impact on local practice stems in part from inadequate authority but also from the horizontally fragmented application of whatever authority exists. Under these circumstances districts and individual teachers have a great deal of leeway in determining what is taught and teachers often lack the tools and training to help all students develop more complex cognitive capacities. The authors suggest there have been efforts to make the horizontal dimension of education policy more coherent (e.g. National Science Foundation Systemic Reform Initiative, pp. 258). Efforts to increase central policy coherence, to have more systematic effects on local practice have been going on a little longer in some states. State activity in the 1980's has been concentrated in 3 areas--student standards, teaching and governance. In each of these areas there has been a great deal of activity, but also considerable ambiguity in terms of what should be accomplished. As the decade progressed, a few states have been linking standards policies to focus on more complex cognitive capacity. Links between these reforms and those affecting teaching have not yet been made in a significant way (pp. 259). Governance reforms could affect policy coherence, but efforts to do so have been limited by confusing efforts to simultaneously increase centralization and decentralization (pp. 259).

Repeated visits to the 21 districts in 6 states highlight the weak vertical link between state policy and district (and classroom) practice in 3 ways. 1) In this vertically fragmented system, the state was still only one part of the districts' complex environment (local conditions take precedent over responding to state reforms). 2) When examining at the

district level the same policy areas tracked in state capitals, one finds a complex mix of local initiatives and reactions to state policy. 3) There is some notable and disturbing variation among districts in how districts respond to state policies. Big city districts with large concentrations of at-risk students are especially poorly served by existing state policies (pp. 265). This last conclusion stems from the researchers analysis of differential use of state reform. Following past research indicating that districts vary in their response from non-implementation through mutual adaptation (pp. 270) to active use, the researchers classified the districts on 2 dimensions. The first separated those that responded passively and without enthusiasm from those who were selective active users of policies. The second sorted districts varied by the activity of their reform agendas. This classification suggests 4 groups: Low Reform/Passive Response; Local Reform/Selective, Active Response; No Local Reform/ Selective Active Response; No Local Reform, Passive Response (pp. 271-272).

The researchers conclude that attempts to promote horizontal integration run into constant debate about vertical linkages in the American education system. Efforts to decentralize governance through teacher professionalism, site-based management, and deregulation, go hand in hand with centralizing reforms like merit pay, increased graduation requirements, and greater state intrusion into curriculum. Such outcome base proposals can run into a number of obstacles. For instance, district efforts to reward more effective schools by reduced monitoring and oversight have floundered on the need to comply with state regulation. Moreover, the extent to which educational outcomes reflect out of school factors that educators cannot control creates serious difficulties for this type of approach (pp. 274). Resolution to this challenge requires research to clarify consequences of different distributions of control over the various aspects of education and a good deal of political work to clarify what the public wants of its schools (pp. 275).

While coherent reform packages will have the greatest effect on school districts, they require a level of consensus about means and ends that is atypical of American policymaking. This lack of agreement reflects strong value differences about what should be accomplished, limited knowledge about how to accomplish it and constraints in the policy process that work against the exploration of issues and experimentation with alternative approaches.

Firestone, W. A., Mayrowetz, D., & Fairman, J. (1997, March 1997). *Rethinking high stakes: External obligation in assessment policy*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Past research on the problems created by high stakes assessment was done on minimum basic skills tests. This study examined the effects of state sanctions linked to performance-based assessment by studying middle school mathematics instruction in 5 districts in Maine and Maryland. The authors conclude that for most districts neither the threat of "takeover" nor publication of test results is as coercive as some have suggested. The mechanism generating a sense of obligation to have students do well on a state test are more complex than what have been described in past research. Moreover, some pressure from the state may help overcome forces that maintain the status quo.

This paper explores the implications of high stakes accountability when combined with the new generation of assessments. The researcher data suggests that negative incentives are only one reason why educators feel some obligation to have students score high on state tests. The researchers contend that there are powerful forces opposing instructional change; some level of stakes attached to tests may usefully work against those forces. Finally, the researcher posits that while high stakes accountability might help to reform practice, it is an insufficient condition in and of itself for doing so.

Data reported in this paper come from a qualitative study of administrative and teacher responses to testing policies in states that have recently adopted performance based assessments. Maryland was selected because the state has linked formal sanctions to test performance while Maine did not have such formal stakes. Both states were selected because they had an eighth grade test, and the study focused on how tests changed the nature of middle school mathematics instruction.

Because the main purpose of the larger study of which this one was a part was to examine how state policies were locally interpreted, the researchers chose an embedded case-study design that allowed them to look at teachers in districts within states. The original plan of the researchers was to select a poor and a middle wealth district in each state. This approach made sense in Maryland but a major source of variation in Maine was between the relatively large urban districts and the many rural ones. In Maine, the researchers chose one urban district as well as a poorer and wealthier system from the smaller districts.

Although the case study design does not help clarify whether various levels of stakes can help scale up reforms, it does help to illustrate the mechanisms behind stakes and related policy elements. What impressed the researchers was that the level of stress, anxiety and trauma implied by titles like Testing, Reform and Rebellion (Corbett & Wilson, 1991) was missing from their schools. To argue that the absence of such stress reflects our sample which does not include truly poor, urban districts, or that stress was lower in later years in implementation, in effect makes one important point that has received too little attention: Stakes vary. That is, not all stakes are high stakes. The stakes for inner city Baltimore schools must have been much higher than those in other districts. Stakes for students who are at risk of not graduating are quite different from those for a teacher whose school scores are published in a newspaper. To understand the magnitude of stakes, one must know about both the perceived value of the consequence of failure the perceived probability of success (Baudura, 1986).

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The researchers suggest that the workings of "stakes" are probably better conceived as a symbolic cultural process than cost-benefit analysis. For most educators the mechanism that promotes attention to the test is the avoidance of embarrassment and the maintenance of self-esteem. Whether test scores constitute a relevant standard against which one measures one's self worth is a contested issue that is constantly negotiated through the implementation and interpretation of assessment policy.

Most educators in both states experience no economic or political consequence for low test scores. The threat of reconstitution is remote for the vast majority. Public mobilization over educational issues does happen, but in these districts test scores were at best only a contributor to local discontent, not a major motivator. Finally, personal consequences in the form of lost jobs or even changed assignments were almost unheard of. The researchers argue that the coercion that results from process are variable and difficult to predict, but they would argue that it is not as inhumane as others have portrayed it. The researchers do argue that some source of externalized obligation to accept the standards embedded in testing appears necessary. Smith's assertion (1996) that there is a war between advocates of tradition and constructivist concepts of teaching and achievement may be an overstatement. Nevertheless, the researchers contend, efforts to diffuse more challenging approaches to teaching and learning using strictly voluntary means have failed on numerous occasions.

In closing, the researchers assert that fundamentally, while the MSPAP is a real advance over the Functional Test and other basic skills assessments, it falls short of an assessment that sets standards of authentic achievement. While it does push educators to move to larger problems and topics that have not been part of the conventional math curriculum, problems are too structured to allow extensive opportunities for mathematical reasoning. Finally the researchers note the problem created when sanctions are applied to teachers but not to students (Cohen, 1996)--without a change in the incentives for students, teachers will be trapped between the power of the state and students who have little reason to worry about their own performance.

Firestone, W. A., Mayrowetz, D., & Fairman, J. (1998). Performance-based assessment and instructional change: The effects of testing in Maine and Maryland. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 20* (2), 95-113.

Authors studied middle school teachers in 5 districts in Maine and Maryland with 3 questions in mind: "What responses to state mathematics tests can be described in each state? What changes in standard modes of teaching mathematics are noted in each state? What factors explain the patterns of stability and change noted in each state?" (pp. 98). Though the authors caution much generalizability of their results, they conclude, "the effects of state testing on teaching may be overrated by both advocates and opponents of such policies" (pp. 111). Teachers in MD changed things like the order in which content areas were introduced, but actual instructional methods did not change greatly in either state. It seems that higher-stakes assessments like MD focus current PD opportunities, but do not change or increase PD that would increase teachers' knowledge of math. In ME, the lower-stakes did not provide as much motivation to change PD, so teachers were able to individualize their PD activities more. In either case, the authors suggest that teachers need an increase in opportunities to change their practice and increase their deep mathematical understandings, and state policy is not sufficient to do this. Policy can increase the talk about practice without changing practice itself.

Fitzpatrick, K. A. (1997). *Indicators of schools of quality Vol. 1: Schoolwide indicators of quality* . Schaumburg, IL: National Study of School Evaluation.

This is an example of education borrowing from management literature and theories in implementing a new strategy.

Florio-Ruane, S., & deTar, J. (1995). Conflict and consensus in teacher candidates discussion of ethnic biography. *English Education, 20* (1), 11-39.

Provides a report of the attempt to create an "autobiography club" among beginning English teachers in order to foster ongoing discussion of experiences and problems. Analyzes club discussions and the lessons being learned through the club's activities. Discusses methods for undertaking ethnographic research in education.

Forrester, J. W. (1961). *Industrial dynamics* . Cambridge, MA: Productivity Press.

This text is intended for students of management. It focuses on designing an enterprise to enable more successful policies and structures. The author presents this as a work in progress and admits that the research that supports it is ongoing and, therefore, may in the future change conclusions presented here. The text has four distinct sections. The first is a non-technical introduction to the nature of industrial dynamics. It defines and describes terms, and presents ways to experimentally study a system and the concept of a management laboratory. The second section presents technical descriptions of the mathematical models involved and the principles behind formulating industrial dynamics models. Part III consists of two system models illustrating the model-building principles of Part II. They are intended as examples, as no one model can be considered universal. These models are missing some more subtle factors that are beyond the scope of this text. Part IV discusses the future of industrial dynamics and is suggested for all readers (is not

as technical as Parts II and III).

Fuhrman, S. H., & Elmore, R. H. (1987). Understanding local control in the wake of state education reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 12* (1), 82-96.

It is argued that traditional notions of state-local relations as a zero-sum game need recasting. It appears that local effects of state policy are greater than those predicted on the basis of state capacity and that localities often gain, rather than lose, influence as a result of state policymaking.

Fuhrman, S. (1994). *Politics and systemic education reform* . New Brunswick, NJ: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

This CPRE brief describes the political challenges to systemic reform and describes conditions that seem necessary for coherent policymaking to occur. This article focuses on the role of state government, but recognizes that all levels of government play a role. Political challenges to systemic reform are described as a lack of consensus on student standards, focus on inputs and processes, and lack of coordinated policies. Policy coordination is hindered by the fragmentation of our political system, a focus on elections by decision makers, an overload of weighty policy issues to decide, and specialization leading to more fragmentation. Kentucky's Pritchard Committee and South Carolina's Business-Education Subcommittee are used as examples to show some elements that seem to be central to systemic reform: strong leadership with a clear vision; processes that promote involvement; and the support of federal government, national groups and professional and policymaking associations. KY and SC are viewed as successful for 5 reasons: they involve a broad base of stakeholders; incorporate business interests; serve as leadership training grounds; regularly inform public; and share efforts with a multi- state audience

Fullan, M. G. (1990). Change processes in secondary schools: Toward a more fundamental agenda. In M. W. McLaughlin, J. E. Talbert, & N. Bascia (Eds.), *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* (pp. 224-255). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author analyzes several recent high school studies looking at key factors or characteristics related to success and at what these studies say or imply about the processes of functioning as an effective school, becoming an effective school and how to direct others to become effective schools. He concludes: 1) Much research tells us what successful schools are like, and we have a basis on which to begin to make this information more universal. 2) Change must focus on long-term organizational factors in order to have real impact. Classroom and school level innovations will not reach beyond tinkering. 3) Institutional change centers on the school, taking all environmental factors into account and focusing pressure and support on the school. 4) Elementary and secondary schools can be reformed with the same intensive school-centered approach, though elementary schools are less complex and more susceptible to simple inadequate solutions. 5) Education needs to develop powerful strategies that address institutional changes over long periods of time, to expand theoretical and research frameworks on long term processes of development, to investigate sub-processes of institutional improvements, to describe the nature and impact of current strategies focusing on organizational restructuring and to develop methods of monitoring the long-term development of organizational factors such as professional development of teachers.

Fullan, M. G., & Steigelbauer, S. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change* . New York: Teachers College Press.

The central issues of interest in the sixteen chapter, 2nd edition of this book are: have the cumulative effects of attempted reform been positive or neutral, or are we losing ground? How do we know change is worthwhile? The roles of teachers, administrators, parents or policy makers in addressing those things that are desperately wrong in the schools? Underlying the above questions is the problem of finding meaning in change. If reforms are to be successful, individuals and groups must find meaning concerning what should change as well as how to go about it. Fullan addresses the issues of meaningful change though the following chapter topics-Sources of Education Change, Causes and Processes of Initiation, Implementation and Continuation in planning, Doing and coping with change, and Aspects of educational change at the local, regional and national levels (e.g. roles and impacts of teachers, principals, students, administrators, parents, and community) governments, professional associations and credentialing institutions, and finally the future of educational change.

Fullan, M. G. (1995). The limits and potential of professional development. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 253-267). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author argues that professional development, having been treated as a discrete entity, and ancillary to the regular job teaching, has severely limited its effectiveness. In addition to being detached, professional development, in the author's view, has had no theoretical framework that governs it and has become relegated to ad hoc events and diffuse rhetoric. The author attempts to develop a more compelling basis and rationale for the role and meaning of professional development and provides components of what constitutes a more substantial and articulated framework, one for

rethinking professional development so that it becomes fundamentally integrated into the essence of teaching and being a teacher. The components include 1) moral purpose and professional development 2) the culture of school and professional development, and 3) linking pre-service and in-service teacher education.

Gallagher, J. J. (1967). Teacher variation in concept presentation. *Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, 30* .

As a result of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS), instructional content and style were studied in six teachers teaching the concept of photosynthesis. The same BSCS curriculum program was used by all six teachers; all six had some previous BSCS training. The students in the six classes had been selected on the basis of high ability and/or high achievement. Three consecutive class sessions were recorded
during the introduction of photosynthesis and analyzed by the topic classification system of Aschner, Gallagher, and others. Significant inter-teacher variations were found on dimensions on teacher intent and level of conceptualization but not on teacher style. Wide variations were found among emphases on various biological concepts or background materials. It was thus concluded that using the same curriculum materials does not insure similar instruction.

Galvin, PP. F. (1998). The organizational economics of interagency collaboration. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration* (pp. 43-63). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

The author uses an organizational economics framework to look at collaboration between schools and other human service agencies. He cites lack of attention to economic factors as a reason for difficult and failed collaborative efforts. These fall into the general categories of coordination costs (communication and planning), opportunity costs (losses from diverting finite resources away from another area), and information costs (information necessary to make informed decisions). Current school structures promote monitoring and accountability systems that prevent the horizontal relationships (as opposed to hierarchical structure) necessary for effective collaboration. The author proposes government funding that supports and legitimizes collaborative structures.

Goldman, PP., & Conley, D. T. (1995). *Systemic school reform in Oregon: Can it be legislated?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

" In 1991 the Oregon Legislature passed major school-reform legislation, the Oregon Educational Act for the 21st Century. The act contains the following provisions: early childhood education; non-graded, developmental education; outcomes-based education; comprehensive support services; and school-based decision making. Oregon's educators were not prepared for, nor did they participate, in the legislation's development. This paper presents findings of a study that examined Oregon educators' reactions to reform over the period 1992-94. Data were collected from a survey of all certified staff from 92 schools in 1992, 25 schools in 1993, and 72 schools in 1994. The return rates were 66, 65, and 66 percent, respectively. Interviews were conducted with 23 teachers, and focus-group sessions were conducted in 23 schools. Findings indicate that there is qualified support for restructuring in theory but dissatisfaction with the implementation process; individuals and school demography did not predict attitudes, though urban districts and administrators tended to be more receptive; and substantial differences existed between districts and between schools. The data suggest that top-down policy will serve to energize local educators only if it is consistent and legislators and state DOE personnel recognize that their goals are: 1) to create a broad framework that supports local educators committed to improvement; 2) to provide enough resources and time for schools to adapt; 3) to successfully develop rules and regulations in response to and in support of new models; and 4) to identify effective accountability mechanisms. The ways in which educators interpret the actions of the legislature and department of education over the next year should indicate whether change becomes self-sustaining or is extinguished. Contains sixteen references and three tables."

Goodlad, J., Klein, M., & Associates. (1970). *Behind the classroom door* . Worthington, OH: Charles A. Jones Publishing.

This paperback book by staff members of the UCLA University Elementary School describes and interprets an observational study of childhood schooling (K-3) in the United States. Chapter 1 summarizes some of the organizational, curricular, and instructional practices and values which have been widely recommended for childhood schooling and which one might reasonably expect to be substantially implemented there. Chapter 2 describes the procedures of data collection and analysis for this observational study of 158 classrooms in 67 schools in 26 school districts in or around major cities of 13 states with a nationwide geographic spread. Forms for interviews with teachers and principals and for observation of classroom activities are appended. Chapter 3 summarizes materials from raw data on schools and resources, classroom practices, curricular provisions and practices, significant problems, and change and innovation. Chapter 4 contains conclusions and generalizations based on expectations outlined in Chapter 1: educational objectives and school function, learning how to learn, subject matter, instructional materials, individual differences, principles of

learning and instruction, classroom interaction, norms and standards and evaluation, human resources and locus for schooling, curricular balance. Chapter 5 sets forth further ideas on the conduct and reconstruction of schooling in the U.S.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future* . New York: McGraw Hill.

Suggestions are made in this book for making significant improvements in the schools. Based on "A Study of Schooling," an extensive on-the-scene investigation of classrooms across the country, the suggestions for significant improvement begin with the premise that the schools must be redesigned piece by piece. All aspects of schooling are considered, including curriculum, school/community relations, quality of teaching, time spent by students on a task, and instructional methods. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study. Chapters 2-8 analyze and discuss data collected from "A Study of Schooling." Topics include: goals of education; academics; classrooms; access to knowledge; teachers and teaching; what schools and classrooms teach; and institutional differences. The 9th and 10th chapters expand upon the suggestions offered in the previous sections. It is noted that these recommendations, and the values they espouse, "may differ markedly" from those of readers. Appendixes list references and personnel involved.

Goodlad, J. I. (1990). *Teachers for our nation's schools* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
A 5-year study of teacher education and the institutional and regulatory context in which it is conducted reveals that several conditions undermine teacher education. These conditions include: low prestige of education departments; preeminence among teacher-educators of scholarly publishing over teaching; and stifling, state-mandated curriculum and credentialing requirements. Nineteen postulates, or presuppositions, are proposed regarding the conditions that will need to be in place if able, dedicated persons are to be attracted to school teaching, well prepared for the challenges they will face, and induced to stay with teaching as a career. The first four postulates outline reasonable expectations for the colleges and universities that assume the responsibility of educating educators. Additional postulates relate to selection of students, state licensing of teachers, clinical training of teachers, university/school district collaboration, and teacher education curriculum.

Greenwood, M. S., & Gaunt, H. J. (1994). *Total quality management for schools* . New York: Cassell.

Education in the United Kingdom has been shaped by the advent of local school management and the rapid growth of grant- maintained schools. This book applies principles of TQM specifically to educational management. Chapter 1 explains the origins of TQM and chapter 2 offers stories of two outstanding American teachers who applied the TQM paradigm to their work. Chapters 3 through 5 present suggestions for defining quality, developing a positive school-marketing approach, and understanding organizational processes. Ways to change the corporate culture and transform members of an organization are described in the fourth and fifth chapters. The sixth and seventh chapters deal with changing the culture and transforming staff. The eighth and ninth chapters describe the costs of achieving quality and statistical process control in the classroom. Chapters 10 through 14 describe how to plan for quality, why TQM programs sometimes fail, the core values of Deming's work, the teacher-student relationship, and the customer-transformation plan. Appendices contain guidelines for a worker-performance experiment and a sample TQM training program. (Contains 22 references.)

Griffin, G. (1983). Introduction: The work of staff development. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.), *Staff development: 82nd yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* (pp. 1-12). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

This chapter serves as an introduction to these chapters on staff development. He treats four topics in this chapter. First, the author proposes that staff development is a timely topic currently, because of the increase in knowledge of teaching-learning processes, the increase in knowledge of effective professional development, the increased clarity and vehemence of the public's views of schools and schooling, and that, overall, society views change as essential. Secondly, he introduces the idea (furthered by other chapters in the text) that there is a tension between staff development with the purpose of changing schools and that with the purpose of maintaining schools. The upcoming chapters tend to look more to changing schools, with the recognition that a minimum of stability can serve the function of personal psychological and organizational health. Thirdly, the author discusses the work involved in staff development. He sees this as a function of being people-centered (while still being idea-driven) and of enlarging one's view to be receptive to how others see staff development and schools (for example, scholars and practitioners would learn much from recognizing the work and ideological perspective of the other). By extension, recognizing others views draws in the need to attend to interpersonal and inter-institutional relations. Also, the work of staff development often has a problem solving orientation; though typically crisis centered, this problem solving focus can be ratcheted up to see the problem structures that could help in future problem solving. The fourth topic of this chapter is an overview of the organization of this yearbook. Part 1 focuses on the context of staff development including adult learning, unit of analysis (school), nature of the larger school system, and descriptions of current practices. Part 2 contains 4 chapters of case studies illustrating a

variety of purposes, practices, and ideologies in staff development. Part 3 concludes with propositions derived from the chapters that could lead to a conceptual framework for staff development. Also, it has a chapter that treats the utility of this volume for staff developers.

Grossman, PP. L. (1992). Why models matter: An alternate view on professional growth in teaching. *Review of Educational Research, 62* (2), 171-179.

The author critiques Kagan's review of research on teacher education. She begins with "Procedural routines appear to be the sine qua non of teaching. Kagan, 1992, pp. 162" and "Understanding of subject matter is a sine qua non in teaching. Freiman- Nemser & Parker, 1990, pp. 40" (pp. 171). The author calls into question the decision rules Kagan uses to choose which research to include and omit, claiming that the decision rules are either arbitrary or specifically chosen to represent only one part of the research of the field. Kagan's model of beginning teachers characterizes them as needing to focus on the mechanics of classroom management before bothering with ethical, moral, and intellectual demands of subject matters. Grossman challenges this as a way to promote the status quo, but not to help teachers learn to teach in the most effective way or to change our schools. She includes examples that prove that beginning teachers can handle and are concerned with these ethical, intellectual issues. "If. . . we want to change prevailing practices, to challenge the lessons learned during prospective teachers' apprenticeships of observation, then we need an entirely different kind of teacher education" (pp. 176).

Guskey, T. R. (1995). Professional development in education. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 114-134). New York: Teachers College Press.
The author contends that improvement in teacher preparation alone is likely to be insufficient for changing practice. Supporting prior research suggesting that preservice education is too short and has too many built in limitations, he describes the "typical professional development experiences for educators," and proposes suggestions for improvement which include a series of guidelines for an optimal mix of experiences and technology for more effective professional development drawn principally from research on individual and organizational change. Key concepts for improving the effectiveness of professional development include: recognizing change as both an individual and organizational process; think big but start small; work in teams to maintain support; include procedures for feedback on results; provide continued follow-up, support, and pressure; and integrate programs. Pragmatic adaptation to specific contexts is emphasized.

Guthrie, J. T., Schafer, W. D., Afflerbach, PP. PP., & Almasi, J. F. (1994). *Systemic reform of literacy education: State and district-level policy changes in Maryland* . Athens, GA and College Park, MD: National Reading Research Center.

The authors measure systemic reform against Smith and O'Day's (1991) 3-part description: having unified vision and goals relating to providing education for all students; a coherent instructional guidance system including goals, professional development and assessments; and a restructured governance system utilizing participative decision making. This study examines the untested hypothesis that a consensus on standards and assessments "will induce creative revisions of instruction that modify student learning" (pp.4). This study examines the policies and practices in Maryland one year following the initiation of MSPAPP. 21 representatives from the 24 Maryland school districts were interviewed by telephone, focusing on the area of reading. Results showed a lack of shared agreement on goals by these administrators, counter to what scholars recommend. Policy coherence regarding instructional goals and materials was discernible, in keeping with Smith and O'Day's description of reforms. The element of school governance and teacher decision-making was not evidenced in district policies. Most administrators reported that it was too early to tell the results on student outcomes. The authors state that this data doesn't yet exist, and that this systemic reform cannot be said to succeed or fail since all the fundamental conditions of reform have not yet been met.

Hamilton, M. L., & Richardson, V. (1995). Effects of the culture of two schools on the process and outcomes of staff development. *Elementary School Journal, 95* (4), 376-385.

The article reports the findings of one element of a 3-year research project. In it, a staff development process was implemented in two elementary schools and was designed to help teachers in grades 4-6 examine their beliefs and practices in teaching reading comprehension and to experiment with new practices. The process consisted of both individual and group components, the group component trying to help teachers develop collegial relationships. The authors were working from a conceptual framework that included the idea that the change process requires attention to the individuals' beliefs and values in order to succeed. Much research looks to the role of shared norms and culture in affecting the change process. The development of teachers talking and sharing teaching practices during the group component of the staff development occurred in three stages: introductory, in which the teachers expected answers to come from the trainers; breakthrough, in which the teachers began to share their teaching beliefs and practices; and empowerment, in which the teachers asked questions of each others' practices and beliefs and some experimentation and questioning of their own practices took place. Though both schools were initially viewed as not ideal for staff development because of low teacher collaboration, effective schools research would predict that the Jones school would have been more successful. In actuality, Jones School was more resistant to this type of staff development than Sumpter School. Jones School reached the breakthrough stage in the ninth meeting, while Sumpter reached the breakthrough

stage in the second meeting. The authors suggest that Jones was marked by norms of congeniality as opposed to collegiality, and a code of individualism despite their friendliness to one another. Sumpter, however, exhibited only a norm of dislike of the principal, and therefore, did not have to overcome a strong norm of individualism to work together. Many of the Sumpter teachers did not even know each other before the staff development. Two other possible explanations for the differences are the effects of individuals on the process: Jones had one teacher who was particularly antagonistic to this type of staff development. Sumpter had a teacher, however, who was highly empowered and going through changes in her reading instruction that she was very willing to share. A second possible explanation is that the Jones teachers met in the school library, whereas the Sumpter teachers met at an individual's home away from the norms of the school. Overall, the study suggests that the interaction of school culture and individual expectations greatly affect the progress of collaboration in staff development.

Hanna, D. PP. (1988). *Designing organizations for high performance* . Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

This book is written for the manager or consultant that wishes to work towards making his or her company a "high performance organization." It attempts to bridge the gap between theory and pictures of what can be by demystifying the process in between. The author provides just enough theory to allow some background, and then discusses an organizational performance model that includes the business situation, strategy, results, culture, and design elements. The design elements have an iterative relationship with each other as well as with the other parts of the organization: tasks, structure, rewards, people, information, and decision-making. The author shares examples of how his model has been used in assessing organizational effectiveness and designing systemic improvements in performance. Some of the "most difficult design issues" (pp. xiv) are treated in detail: determining departmental boundaries, designing teams, and designing individual work roles. Managing cultural and political norms of the organizational is another critical aspect of designing high-performance systems. He stresses that although there are some commonalities, there is no way to change an organization and the journey is a never-ending one.

Hargreaves, A., & Dawe, R. (1989). *Coaching as a reflective practice: Contrived congeniality or collaborative culture.* Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

The differences between collaborative culture and contrived collegiality as forms of joint work and interaction among teachers are defined. Peer coaching, especially one variant known as technical coaching, is used to investigate and interpret these differences. Technical coaching is seen as fostering contrived collegiality rather than collaborative culture.

Hart, A. W. (1998). Marshaling forces: Collaboration across educator roles. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 89-120). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

The author explores role theory and professional socialization to address issues in intra-school professional collaboration. Collaboration can lead to ambiguous or contradictory role definitions and expectations. Work groups may omit attention to group interactions, or pay too much attention--both are a danger. Taking into account the technical tasks, the social aspects of the organization and the group, and the goals to be achieved promises enhancement of school success.

Hawley, W. D., & Valli, L. (1998). The essentials of effective professional development: A new consensus. In G. S. L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *The heart of the matter* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Effective continuing professional development calls for collegial opportunities to learn that are directly linked to solving authentic problems defined by the gap between student achievement and performance. The implementation of this new model will require major changes in "1) how professional development is delivered, 2) how schools are structured, and 3) the culture that sustains both the way schools are structured and the belief systems that sustain conventional educational processes and the place of professional development among educational priorities" (pp.2). The authors propose eight design principles for effective professional development that results in improved student learning: 1) is driven by analyses of the differences between student academic standards and actual achievement, 2) involves teachers in identifying what they need to learn and how, 3) is school-based and integral to school operations, 4) provides for collaborative problem solving opportunities, 5) is continuous, involving follow-up and external support sources, 6) incorporates multiple sources of information on student outcomes and methods/processes used, 7) develops a theoretical base of knowledge and skills to be learned, and 8) is integrated in a comprehensive change process addressing impediments to student learning.

Hayes, R. H., Wheelwright, S. C., & Clark, K. B. (1988). *Dynamic manufacturing: Creating a learning organization* . New York: The Free Press.

The authors find a major reason for the decline of American competitiveness in world markets to be the fault of management. Though changes will be necessary at all levels of the organization, management is the place to begin, especially with structural and infra-structural decisions. In order to understand how we arrived at our current situation, the authors offer a chapter with a historical perspective of American manufacturing. The next chapters look at

infrastructure issues: the modern capital budgeting paradigm, the organization of resources and processes, and measuring performance. The book then moves to discussing factory level management--summarizing research on productive factories, comparing two manufacturing "architectures" and analyzing their potential, describing 4 types of control and the knowledge associated with each, and explaining alternate principles of human resource management. Management of technology is also covered in this text, especially related to project development and management. The authors emphasize the importance of human qualities such as trust, integrity, leadership though these are less well understood than rational management theories of behavior patterns and causal relationships.

Haynes, N. M., Comer, J. PP., & Hamilton-Lee, M. (1988). The school development program: A model for school improvement. *Journal of Negro Education, 57* (1), 11-21.

This article describes the School Development Program (SDP) developed by Comer. It has four main components: the Governance and Management Team, typically led by the principal with other members including two representative teachers, three parents selected by the parent organization, and a mental health team member; the Mental health team, usually made up of a classroom teacher, a special education teacher, the social worker and the school psychologist; the Parent Participation Program concerned with structuring broad-based activities for large numbers of parents, parents as tutors and/or aides in classes and a small number of parents in governance roles; and Curriculum and Staff Development as part of the comprehensive school plan and overseen by the Governance and Management Team. The article goes on to present a study of observed changes in school achievement levels and school climate variables in a Michigan school system using this SDP, concluding that the SDP had measurable positive impact on both math and reading achievement and school climate.

Heath, S. B., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1996). The best of both worlds: Connecting schools and community youth organizations for all-day, all-year learning. In J. G. Cibulka & W. J. Kritek (Eds.), *Coordination among schools, families, and communities: Prospects for educational reform* (pp. 69-93). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

This article discusses the ways schools and community-based youth organizations (CBOs) could collaborate to meet the learning needs of today's students. Policy-makers often craft such collaboratives based on anticipated bureaucratic efficiencies. These partnerships also rarely affect having schools be responsible for the actual education of students. This article is based on five years of field research in more than 60 successful youth organizations in three urban communities, supplemented by interviews with students of a comparable field study of secondary schools in eight metropolitan areas. The authors argue for a serious rethinking of the relationships among the schools and other youth-based organizations, since CBOs have more and more developed into educational and employment-preparation institutions developing skills in oral and written language, mathematical and scientific concept experimentation, regular attendance and commitment, and collaborative planning with diverse individuals. Such collaborations could create all-day, all-year learning opportunities for students.

Heckman, PP., Scull, W. R., & Conley, S. (1996). Conflict and consensus: The Bitter and Sweet in a Community-School coalition. In J. Cibulka & W. Kritek (Eds.), *Coordination among schools, families, and communities* (pp. 49-67). Albany: State University of New York.

This chapter describes the process of conflict and consensus that two school-community coalitions experienced. The coalition was formed as a result of the understanding of the value of promoting connections between schools, parents, families, and the community at large to improve student learning. The project utilized Goodlad's theory of educational ecology to improve the alignment of student's formal and non-formal educational experiences. Within the classroom alternative approaches to instruction were implemented. Four concepts shaped the formation of the coalitions. They were indigenous invention, macro political ideas, micro political ideas, and democratic process. Indigenous invention refers to teachers, parents, children, and other community members can purposefully invent their social world. Macro-political ideas are the awareness that groups in the surrounding environment have influence and necessary resources for the organization. Micro-political ideas acknowledges that alliance among special interest groups within the organization will form and change over time and influence the success or failure of the organization. Democratic process implies that all participants are given a voice and encouraged to participate in decisions about what aspects of community life are problematic and require change efforts. The chapter goes on to describe the development of the coalitions and concludes with a discussion about "inevitable presence of conflict".

Hedberg, B. (1981). How organizations learn and unlearn. In PP. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational design: Adapting organizations to their environments* (Vol. 1, pp. 3-27). New York: Oxford University Press.

"This chapter begins by discussing the concept of learning and how organizational and individual learning relate to each other. A stimulus-response paradigm is then employed to describe how organizations select their stimuli, enact their environments, and assemble their responses, and how action programs and theories of action develop as organizations continue to act. The SR model, with its complete learning cycles, is then challenged in a discussion on incomplete learning cycles. Conditions for learning are discussed with respect to inner and outer learning environments. The description ends by discussing how learning is triggered and how unlearning occurs. These aspects are often closely related so that one initiates the other. A concluding, prescriptive section identifies research needs and develops four

design strategies that organizational designers could follow in order to facilitate organizations' learning and unlearning" (pp. 4).

Henderson, J. G., & Hawthorne, R. D. (1995). *Transformative curriculum leadership.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

This chapter presents a case for a particular set of features and qualities of school cultures needed to foster and sustain the personal and professional maturation of teachers, built upon the works of Lieberman, Senge, and Sirotnik. Specifically, it sets "a conceptual framework constructed of those principles and features that are consistently identified as indicators of mature school-community and school cultures" (pp. 92). The first aspect of a learning community deals with the centrality of the belief systems. The beliefs of teachers and students are central to the process of meaning making, thus the process of learning in the constructivist notion. Individuals must be encouraged and supported in challenging beliefs in order to grow, thus developing a full self-awareness (the critical perspective is evident here). Secondly, to maintain democratic involvement of all voices, the authors utilize organizational development skills. These deal with issues of conflict and communication among participants and lead to some characteristics of a learning community: an ethic of caring, civic responsibility, and constructivist inquiry (see pp. 97). "If parents, teachers, principals, and interested others are not engaged in intellectually enriching and joyful activities, do not embrace an ethic of caring in their transactions with each other, and do not speak for and act on principles of cultural democracy, then there is little reason to believe that they are capable of creating similar opportunities for children" (pp. 91). The third aspect of a learning community involved the political dimensions of influencing and controlling the allocation of resources. The (rational or irrational) resource needs of the learning community may not always be in harmony with those in power, thus a learning community must always be involved in political activity.

Henderson, R. D., Greenberg, N. M., Schneider, J. M., Uribe Jr., O., & Verdugo, R. R. (1996). High-Quality Schooling for African American Students. In M. J. Shujaa (Ed.), *Beyond desegregation: The politics of quality in African American schools* (pp. 162-184). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

This chapter describes a different approach to improving school achievement of African-American students--focusing on improving the conditions of teaching and learning rather than changing the demographics of schools or using singular programs. To address the issue, the authors look at and briefly review literature on school quality, desegregation, educational achievement of African American students, effective schools and Total Quality Management. The Conditions of Teaching and Learning (CTL) Project sponsored by NEA sought to meld these educational and productivity theories in their study. First they translated effective schools characteristics and TQM principles into one list of 11 educational quality points (EQPs) that captures the essence of each. Then a national randomly stratified (according to NEA region) sample of teacher members (n=1583) were studied with three instruments: a Total Quality Index, the 11 EQPs, and a composite of 35 quality educational tools (EQTs) that a school could implement to improve its educational environment. Not all of the school-quality items exert significant effects on student achievement for either the whole student body or for African and non- white students, but enough emerged as important predictors to warrant "great optimism" (pp. 182). The same items did not predict achievement the same way for the entire student body as they did for the African American and nonwhite student population. Some of the positive predictors are: eliminating barriers through a cooperative problem-solving process, a shared belief that all students can achieve under proper conditions, teachers consistently rating the quality of the program high, a shared understanding about achievable education outcomes, assessment results are actually used in making decisions, general commitment to long-range continuous learning, assessments are performed daily by everyone, and assessments use exhibition. In general, however, the authors conclude that the best way to improve the educational achievement of African American students is through improving the quality of their schools.

Hill, D. (1995). The strong department: Building the department as learning community. In L. S. Siskin & J. W. Little (Eds.), *The subjects in question: Departmental organization and the high school* (pp. 123-140). New York: Teachers College Press.

This author uses a metaphor to describe a high school Social Studies department that he views as a strong learning community. Hill likens his department to a five-cylinder engine driven by a battery. The five-cylinders are the teacher as learner, collegial collaboration, shared leadership, professional outreach such as presenting at and participating in workshops, supervising student teachers, leadership in community organizations, etc., and reflective practice. None of these cylinders can run the engine alone, but charged with a battery of core spirit it represents a learning community. The core spirit of this school includes irreverent attitudes, childish enthusiasm, a Puritan work ethic, and a compulsion to achieve excellence.

Houston, W. R. (Ed.). (1990). *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: A Project of the Association of Teacher Educators* . New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co.

This volume is a definitive guide to what is known about the preparation of teachers, induction into the tasks of teaching, and career teacher development. It is designed for educators responsible for preservice teacher education and in-service staff development. The articles are organized in nine sections under the following heads: 1) Teacher Education as a Field of Inquiry; 2) Governance of Teacher Education; 3) Contexts and Models of Teacher Education; 4) Participants in Teacher Education; 5) Curriculum of Teacher Education; 6) Processes of Teacher Education; 7) Evaluation and Dissemination; 8) Teacher Education in the Curricular Areas; and 9) Broadened Perspectives of Teacher Education. The book analyzes the knowledge base undergirding teacher education; examines unique approaches in 11 disciplines; explores research methodology and philosophical inquiry, and historical studies; and suggests areas for future research.

Huber, G. PP. (1996). Organizational learning: The contributing processes and the literatures. In M. D. Cohen & L. S. Sproull (Eds.), *Organizational learning* (pp. 124-162). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

The author attempts to review organizational learning literature utilizing a broader scope and more critically evaluative approach than other reviews. The author points out a variety of definitions of organizational learning: "An entity learns if, through its processing of information, the range of its potential behaviors is changed" (pp. 126), "more organizational learning occurs when more of the organization's components obtain this knowledge and recognize it a s potentially useful' (pp. 126), and "more organizational learning occurs when more organizational units develop uniform comprehensions of the various interpretations" (pp. 127). The author organizes the literature according to four constructs: *knowledge acquisition* , consisting of the five sub-processes of (a) congenital learning (organizational knowledge inherited during its conception and at birth), (b) experimental learning (intentional and unintentional), (c) vicarious learning (from second hand experience), (d) grafting (adding on through acquisition of new members or buying out another organization), and (e) searching (scanning the environment in more or less systematic ways to acquire information; *information distribution* such as when one department shares its information with another department thus increasing the breadth of knowledge of the organization; *information interpretation* in which information in given multiple commonly understood interpretations; and *organizational memory* as it is affected by membership attrition, information distribution and interpretation, methods for storing, and methods for retrieving stored information. Generally, the author indicates little cumulative work and little integration. The author suggests this may be due to a sparse population of researchers in this area, a focus on competition and specialization. The author concludes by noting "work on organizational learning has not led to research-based guidelines for increasing the effectiveness of organizational learning. Nor has it been presented in forums or media typically monitored by those who guide organizational processes" (pp. 153).

Huberman, A. M., & Miles, M. B. (1986). Rethinking the quest for school improvement: Some findings from the DESSI study. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Rethinking school improvement. Research, craft, and concept* (pp. 61-81). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors attempt to show that the conceptual paradigms used to account for school improvement processes need enlargement and articulation to come closer to reality. Those with more rational perspectives need to pay more attention to the irrational, sometimes disruptive, empirical results found in the field. Those with a more conflict-theory basis may be too conspiratorial in their view to notice much of the more rational goal-centered activity that happens in the field. A paradigm that takes both views into account is, to these authors, both possible and a rich source of study. The authors also believe that school improvement is a reachable goal--that we know more than we let on, especially if you combine the two mentioned conceptual paradigms. Both pressure from management and personal/professional growth on the part of the individual implementers can succeed in positive changes for schools and education. The authors selectively use three of the findings from the DESSI study to support these claims and demonstrate the plausibility of combining paradigms. First, the merit of a particular innovation serves as *a* reason, but not always the *main* reason, for adoption of the program. Second, intelligently and supportively exercised administrative defectiveness may be the surest path to significant school improvement. This borders on coercion, but that coercion serves to ensure that more than just the easy-to-implement parts of a program are tried and learned and institutionalized. This has as an assumption that resources are available (which is not always true) and that administrators act with only the students' best interests in mind (and not all administrators may be so pure). And third, "well executed, high-quality innovations do bring about measurable improvements, but some of them may destabilize the very conditions that have produced the improvements" (pp. 77). One example of this is the promotion of key actors in the implementation of the innovation to other positions, leaving a school without a key supporter or a person with particular knowledge and skills regarding the innovation. This article does include a brief description of the DESSI project, but there are other publications that go into more detail in that regard.

Huberman, M. (1995). Networks that alter teaching: Conceptualizations, exchanges and experiments. *The Journal of the International Study Association on Teacher Thinking, 1* (2), 193-211.

Professional development' has become a password to a variety of activities ranging from self-directed experimentation in the classroom to full- blown research projects with peers and, occasionally, with external sources of expertise. From its initial, more restrictive and individual sense of in-service training, it has taken on institutional, even systemic dimensions, and has been identified as a pre-condition for thoroughgoing school reform. Even in its present form, however the concept is problematic. The claim is made here that (a) it does not take into account the more 'artisan' or 'craft-centered'

nature of work in the classroom, (b) that it is overly school-centered, and (c) that it under- estimates the real gradient of instructional change. A research-based, cross-school alternative for reflection and change is proposed, with a focus on bridging the gap between peer exchanges, the interventions of external resource people, and the greater likelihood of actual change at the classroom level." The cyclical model for professional development/learning is built on the idea that change will be complex, novel, ambiguous, contradictory, and conflicting, and that these characteristics make ideal conditions for any learning. Model includes conceptual inputs, experience sharing, didactic leads, observations, developing new methods, pedagogical analysis, experimentation, discussion, and technical consultations.

Huberman, M. (1995). Professional careers and professional development-some intersections. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 193-224). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author addresses teachers' professional lives and the relationship between that trajectory and the domain of professional development. The author hypothesizes that: Teachers have different aims and different dilemmas at various moments in their professional cycle and their desires to reach out for more information, knowledge, expertise and technical competence will vary accordingly. A core assumption is that there will be commonalities among teachers in the sequencing of their professional lives and that one particular form of professional development may be appropriated to these shared sequences. The author reviews some of the recent paradigms of Teacher Life-Span Development, extracts guideposts around which professional development activities could be tied, and devises a generic model of professional collaboration among teachers, however many years of experience they have compiled. Key Concepts in the Model Sequence are (pp.204): Career Entry Survival and Discovery (Yrs 1-3); Stabilization (Yrs 4-6); Experimentation and Diversification to Stock-Taking, and Serenity (Yrs 7-18); Conservatism, Disengagement (serene or bitter) (Yrs 31-40).

Interstate New Teacher Support and Assessment Consortium, (1992). *Model standards for beginning teacher licensing and development: A resource for state dialogue* . Washington D.C.: Council for Chief State School Officers.

This document states the basic beliefs upon which the standards are written and ten principles for licensing beginning teachers. Generally, the basic beliefs are that every child can learn rigorous content, that the educational system must provide learning environments that meet the needs of life-long learners, that teachers' duties include connecting with parents and other professionals, and that teachers must be pursuing life-long learning (a dynamic process) in order to meet the needs of their students. Each principle is followed by the appropriate knowledge, dispositions, and performance criteria associated with it. The ten principles are: 1) "The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and can create learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students" (pp. 10); 2) "The teacher understands how children learn and develop, and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social and personal development" (pp. 12); 3) "The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners" (pp. 14); 4) "The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage students' development of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills" (pp. 16); 5) "The teacher uses an understanding of individual and group motivation and behavior to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation" (pp. 18); 6) "The teacher uses knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom" (pp. 21); 7) "The teacher plans instruction based upon knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curriculum goals" (pp. 23); 8) "The teacher understands and uses formal and informal assessment strategies to evaluate and ensure the continuous intellectual, social and physical development of the learner" (pp. 25); 9) "The teacher is a reflective practitioner who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and who actively seeks out opportunities to grow professionally" (pp. 27); 10) "The teacher fosters relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being" (pp. 29).

Jackson, B. L., & Cooper, B. S. (1989). *What role for parents in urban high schools? The New York City experience.* Paper presented at the AERA Annual Meeting.

Describes New York City initiatives for parent participation in education, including the Parent Involvement Program (PIP), the Parent Orientation Program (POP), and the Parent Leadership Assistance Network (PLAN). These programs incorporate commitment to the family, broadened definitions of parent involvement, varied involvement strategies, and involvement of all school levels in the process.

Jenlink, PP. M. (1994). Using evaluation to understand the learning architecture of an organization. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 17* (3), 315-325.

"This article presents an emerging theoretical perspective for understanding organizational learning and what it takes to build learning organizations. The concept of learning architecture is introduced as a critical element in understanding organizational learning. The learning architecture consists of the organization's framing mechanisms, memory, knowledge, and learning processes which connect these three structures. The article provides insight into the role of evaluation as an important link to (a) understanding the learning architecture of organizations, and (b) helping

organizations to transform the learning organization ideal into reality. It concludes with a framework to guide evaluators in uncovering an organization's existing learning architecture and designing a new learning architecture essential to building a learning organization."

Johnson, S. M. (1990). The primacy and potential of high school departments. In M. W. McLaughlin, J. E. Talbert, & N. Bascia (Eds.), *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* (pp. 167-184). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author focuses on teachers' experiences with how high school departments work and what they mean. Data consisted of interviews of 39 high school teachers in Eastern Massachusetts recommended as "very good" teachers by their supervisors and peers. The teachers were in public, independent, and Catholic schools. Factors considered include school size, control and activeness in textbook selection, curriculum setting, assigning teachers to courses, and selecting and evaluating staff, sense of belonging to their department, and learning opportunities that were possible from department colleagues. Departments could help set and maintain standards, and were the arenas in which teachers could initiate change. Department meetings tended to focus on pedagogy and curriculum rather than school-wide matters. Much variation in the degree of autonomy versus collaboration and coordination existed from school to school. These variations in practices seemed to come from "the style and preferences of the department head, the organizational and political context of the school and district, and the distinct character of those who taught a particular subject" (pp. 175). The author suggests further research in determining how departments' function and the extent contextual and organizational forces shape them.

Johnson, B. L., Jr. (1998). Organizing for collaboration: A reconsideration of some basic organizing principles. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 9-25). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Specifically, chapter two uses an organizational theory framework to discuss the way in which schools are organized and how they differ from how a collaborative organization should be structured. This author defines organizational structure as "the ways (patterns) in which the work within an organization is divided (components) *and* in which coordination and control over this work is pursued (relationships among components)" (pp. 11). These *patterned social features* define the structure of an organization. According to the "form follows function" rule, schools have a greater need for collaboration than other organizations but attention should be paid to the "stimulus- overload, labor-intensive nature of school environments" (pp. 4), the norm of autonomy, and the norm of controlling pupils, and the vulnerability of schools to their environments.

Jones, S. (1996). *Developing a learning culture: Empowering people to deliver quality, innovation and long-term success* . London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The author emphasizes the role that culture plays in organizations having effective training programs. Short-term cost-effectiveness strategies are less effective than long-term strategies to invest in the development of all employees but these trainings must be relevant, hands-on, collaborative experiences. This text does not deviate from other business views of organizational learning, but it does specifically detail the skills necessary for a learning organization. At the most basic level, employees need collaborative interpersonal attitudes of respect, trust, honesty, humility, fairness, justice, empathy, and a liking of people. These attitudes lay the groundwork for the collaborative interpersonal skills of listening, openness, non- abrasiveness, non-judgmental tolerance, genuineness, consistency, objective rationality, and self-reflection/appraisal. These skills enable the functional skills of initiating, consulting, informing/presenting, supporting, requesting/seeking , eliciting, critical questioning and feedback, receiving critical questioning and feedback, evaluating, revising, inking, suggesting, expressing/describing/clarifying, planning, inferring, delegating, producing, and promoting. These functional skills are, in their turn, the basis for the broad team skills of discussion/communication, problem solving, decision-making, and self-team development.

Kerchner, C. T., Koppich, J. E., & Weeres, J. G. (1997). *United mind workers: Unions and teaching in the knowledge society* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Includes bibliographical references (pp. 213- 223) and index on the following subjects; Postindustrial unionism, Organizing the other half of teaching, From siege mentality to transformational vision, The quest for quality, Improving the craft of teaching, Upgrading educational standards, Evaluating the work of peers, New union-management agreements, Reforming the district wide contract, Establishing school-based compacts, Institutionalizing the new union, Strengthening the market for teachers, Creating new representation roles for unions, Reforming the labor law, and Organizing for the knowledge era.

Kiesler, S., & Sproull, L. (1982). Managerial response to changing environments: Perspectives on problem sensing from social cognition. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 27* , 548-570.

Managerial problem sensing includes the macro-processes of noticing, interpreting, and incorporating stimuli. Each process is composed of micro-social-cognition processes. Analysis using three social cognition theories (social perception, information processing, and social motivation) illustrates how managerial problem-sensing errors can occur and points out implications for organizational adaptation.

Kirst, M. (1991). Improving children's services: Overcoming barriers, creating new opportunities. *Phi Delta Kappan, 72* (8), 615-618.

At a time of reduced social services funding, some children receive redundant services and others receive none. Fragmentation prevents social service professionals from seeing the cumulative impact of their interventions. School restructuring that provided more personal relationships between secondary students and teachers could enhance integrated children's services.

Knapp, M. S., & Shields, PP. M. (1990). *Better schooling for the children of poverty: Alternatives to conventional wisdom* . Washington D.C.: US Department of Education.

This document summarizes the first report of the Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students, a 3-year investigation of curriculum and instruction in elementary schools serving high concentrations of poor children. (The first report constitutes volume 2 of a projected series). Recent scholarship, theory, and experimentation in the classroom highlight flaws in the "conventional wisdom" that emphasizes the following approaches to teaching reading, writing, and mathematics to the economically disadvantaged: 1) remediation of the learners' deficits, 2) a curriculum broken down into discrete skills; 3) teacher-directed instruction; 4) a uniform approach to classroom management; and 5) the grouping of students by ability. Appropriately applied, the following alternatives show promise of improving conventional practice: 1) an emphasis on the knowledge students bring to school; 2) explicit teaching of how to function in the "culture" of the school; 3) early emphasis on appropriate "higher order" tasks; 4) extensive opportunities to learn and apply skills in context; 5) an emphasis on meaning and understanding in all academic instruction; 6) a combination of teacher-directed and learner-directed instruction; 7) variation in classroom management approaches depending on the kind of academic work being done; 8) some use of grouping arrangements that mix ability levels; and 9) more flexibility in grouping arrangements. A list of thirty-nine references, a discussion of the larger study of which this is a part, and the table of contents of volume 2, "Commissioned Papers and Literature Review," are appended. This document comprises nine commissioned papers and four literature review chapters that are part of the first report of the Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students, a 3-year investigation of curriculum and instruction in elementary schools serving high concentrations of poor children. (A summary of this report is presented in volume 1.) The report contains four parts. Part 1, "Toward Effective Curricula and Instruction in Literacy," comprises the following chapters: 1) "Effective Literacy Instruction for At- Risk Children" (R. Allington); 2) "Modifying Reading Instruction to Maximize Its Effectiveness for 'Disadvantaged' Students" (G. Garcia and D. Pearson); 3) "Social and Instructional Issues in Educating 'Disadvantaged' Students" (L. Moll); and 4) "Review of Research on Curriculum and Instruction in Literacy" (M. Knapp and M. Needels). Part 2, "Toward Effective Curricula and Instruction in Mathematics," contains the following chapters: 5) "Good Teaching of Worthwhile Mathematics to Disadvantaged Students" (A. Porter); 6) "Selected Issues for Studying the Mathematics Education of the Disadvantaged" (W. Secada); 7) "Mathematics Education, the Disadvantaged, and Large-Scale Investigation: Assessment for Stability Versus Assessment for Change" (C. McKnight); and 8) "Review of the Research on Effective Curriculum and Instruction in Mathematics" (A. Zucker). Chapters in part 3, "Toward Effective Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management," are the following: 9) "Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students" (J. Brophy); 10) "Classroom Tasks: The Core of Learning from Teaching" (W. Doyle); 11) "Classroom Management and Instructional Strategies for the Disadvantaged Learner: Some Thoughts About the Nature of the Problem" (B. Neufeld); and 12) "A Review of Research on Effective Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management Approaches" (H. McCollum). Part 4, "Connections Between the Classroom and the School/Community Environment for Academic Instruction," consists of a single paper (Chapter 13), entitled "A Review of Research on School and Community Influences on Effective Curriculum and Instruction" (PP. Shields). Each chapter includes a list of references.

Knapp, M. S. (1995). *Forces inside the classroom linked with teaching for meaning: Teaching for meaning in high-poverty classrooms* . New York: Teachers College Press.

This chapter focuses on the associations between student and teacher characteristics and the degree of emphasis on teaching for meaning. The 3 subject areas studied--math, reading and writing--all share the same patterns. In this study of 40 classrooms for 1 year each, there were at most minor differences in poverty, achievement history, and racial composition between classes receiving meaning- based instruction and those receiving skill-oriented instruction. Class size, student mobility, homogeneity of ethnicity and language background was correlated with class manageability. This research could not distinguish whether the lack of teaching for meaning under extreme conditions came from the difficulty of implementing such instructional practices under these conditions or from a belief of teachers that they can't manage this approach with this particular student population. Evidence showed that teachers must truly want and search out professional development before the experiences begin to accumulate. Teachers' beliefs of how to best teach their subject area strongly influenced how and what they taught. The sampling process resulted in teachers who believed their students could succeed, but teachers varied in their conception of what *succes* s meant. Overall, teachers emphasizing

meaning were only slightly more familiar with this type of student population than those teachers emphasizing skills. However, meaning-based teachers made much more use of that knowledge in their teaching strategies. Overall, teaching for meaning can be successful with high poverty populations. Few teachers studied taught for meaning in 2 or all 3 of the subject areas focused on. It seemed to be looked on as a specialization: 58% of teachers taught for meaning in at least one curricular area. This could be related to personal interest or demand for time and preparation teaching for meaning requires

Knapp, M. (1997). *Where macro and micro perspectives meet: Policy, student diversity and excellent teaching* . Seattle: University of Washington.

This article addresses the complexities and challenges which diversity poses to the teaching task. Knapp identifies various "types of diversity" including socioeconomic, race, ethnicity, linguistic background, and disabilities, as well as the pervasive fact of gender and the growing willingness to recognize differences in gender-based perspectives. The article highlights specific policy issues which related to both school and professional development (including recruitment, induction, etc).

Knowles, M. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus pedagogy.* New York: Association Press.
This book is a guided inquiry into the newly emerging technology of adult education based on an original theory of andragogy (the art and science of helping adults learn) as distinguished from pedagogy (teaching children and youth). Its central thesis is that adults in certain crucial respects are different from young people as learners, and that a different approach is needed. Part 1 explores what the differences are, and what they mean to the development of a unique adult education methodology. In Part 2, principles and practical techniques are offered for establishing an organizational climate and structure, assessing needs and interests, defining purposes and objectives, translating objectives into program designs, organizing and administering total programs, evaluating them, and using a systems approach to program planning and operation. The third part presents tested management procedures for courses, workshops, institutes, and other types of educational activities. Numerous samples of actual programs and successfully used materials are introduced groups, and learning levels. An index, chapter bibliographies, and 77 tables and figures are also included.

Knowles, M. (1973). *The adult learner: A neglected species* . Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

This book is written to inform educators, trainers and policy makers working with adults. Knowles proceeds with four main assumptions underlying androgogical theory (pp.45) that a re viewed as being different, or which diverge, from traditional pedagogical theory: 1) Androgogy assumes that the point at which an individual achieves a self-concept of essential self-direction is the point at which he/she psychologically becomes an adult. This ability/capability to self-define, and subsequently self-direct are central to the process of adult learning; 2) As an individual matures he/she accumulates an expanding reservoir of experiences, this results in the increasing ability to be a rich resource for learning and a broad base on which to relate new learning requires less reliance on transmittal techniques of traditional teaching an increasing emphasis on experiential techniques which allow adults to integrate an analyze their experiences; 3) Readiness to learn in adults is a product of the developmental tasks required for the performance of an adult's evolving social and professional roles. These needs are central to the design of learning experiences; 4) Where as Knowles perceived that children are conditioned to have a subject-centered orientation to learning, adults tend to have a problem-centered orientation. There is a critical "time" dimension to adult learning insofar s adults tend to want to apply tomorrow what is learned today (pp.48). This assumption has major implications regarding the organization of curriculum and learning experiences (Kuhen, 1964; McCluskey 1965, 1970, 1971; Peck, 1956). These four theoretical assumptions are then woven into principles, concepts and approaches for working with adult learners and applications of adult learning theory and its implications for human resource development.

Korthagen, F., & Kessels, J. (1999). Linking theort and practice: Changing the pedagogy of teacher education. *Educational Researcher, 28* (4), 4-17.

"The pressure towards a more school-based teacher education programs, visible in many countries, creates a need to rethink the relationship between theory and practice. The traditional application-of-theory model appears to be rather ineffective and is currently being replaced by other, more reflective approaches. However, until now the variety of different notions and assumptions underlying these new approaches has not provided a sound basis for further development. Two related theoretical bases are presented for a new paradigm of teacher education. The first uses concepts of episteme and phronesis to introduce a new way of framing relevant knowledge. The second is a more holistic way of describing the relationship between teacher cognition and teacher behavior, leading to a model of three levels in learning about teaching, the Gestalt level, the schema level, and the theory level, which are illustrated by interview data. Building on these two theoretical frameworks, a so-called " realistic approach" to teacher education is introduced. The teacher educator's role within this approach is analyzed as well as organizational consequences. First evaluative results are presented."

Kostin, M. S. (1998). *What matters? Multiple perspectives and their influence on the development of an assessment process for an emerging Professional Development School.* Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego.

"As Professional Development Schools begin their second decade of existence, little is yet known about their effectiveness. Twenty-two identified stakeholders of the Mountain View High School PDS in New England shared their perspectives on the purposes, processes, relationships, and outcomes of their partnership. Their views were examined in order to identify the critical elements deemed necessary for the initiation, perpetuation, and evaluation of an emerging PDS. PDSs are very dynamic and constantly changing entities and, as a result, are rapidly moving targets with unique characteristics, rendering the use of conventional assessment models impractical and futile. This study proposes an assessment framework that examines the effectiveness of a PDS on five important levels: improved student learning K-16; pre-service education worthy of preparing the next generation of teachers; meaningful, needs-based in-service professional development; mutual renewal that generates knowledge for the profession; and, the cultivated mutuality of the collaborative relationship." (PP.1)

PDS goals are seen as improving student achievement, improving in-service training, improving teacher pre-service training, and increasing the body of knowledge of education. The author describes PDSs as a mix of 3 cultures: the pragmatist school-based participants; the conceptual development focused, university-based participants; and a third emerging PDS culture of participants able to recognize the larger, overall PDS goals.

Lampert, M. (1985). How do teachers manage to teach? Perspectives on problems in practice. *Harvard Educational Review, 55* (2), 178-194.

In two case studies, Lampert views the teacher as dilemma manager-- a broker of contradictory interests. Other images of teachers--as choosing among dichotomous alternative views, fulfilling others' expectations, as technical production managers and implementers of theories on learning--are contrasted with the perspective of teaching as the acceptance of continuous conflict with which teachers can learn to cope.

Lawler III, E. E. (1986). *High-involvement management* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Participative approaches to management are discussed, noting how each major participative management approach works, its particular strengths, costs, and savings. Identified as particularly promising is "high-involvement management" which involves employees both financially and psychologically. Guidelines for implementation are provided. A detailed model for integrating participative management approaches to involve people at all levels of an organization is offered. The 12 chapters are divided into three sections which cover: 1) the promise of participative management; (2) participative programs: such as circles, employee survey feedback, job enrichment, work teams, union-management quality-of-work-life programs, gain-sharing, and new-design plants; and 3) high-involvement management: creating an effective approach to participation. Contains approximately 100 references.

Lawler III, E. E. (1992). *The ultimate advantage: Creating the high involvement organization* . San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

This book reviews the major structural features organizations need to achieve high employee involvement and gain a competitive advantage. Chapter one describes how traditional bureaucratic approaches to management fail to allow organizations to competitively perform in the current environment. Responses to changes in technology and customer needs require the ability to continuously improve performance. Chapter two describes the type of organization in which employee involvement is successful. Chapter three describes the necessary organizational structures required for successful employee involvement. Chapters four and five discuss the need for job enrichment, self-managing teams, and autonomy necessary to eliminate costly external control systems. Chapter six describes how problem-solving groups can be used as a transition strategy to move towards greater employee involvement. Chapters seven and eight discuss the use of incentives such as skill-based pay, and pay-for-performance as well as the need to emphasize teamwork and collective responsibility. Chapter nine describes the need to provide employees with both on-going information about organizational performance as well as long term goals in order to more effectively self-manage and coordinate work efforts with other employees. Chapter ten identifies the need for extensive training programs as well as "flexible human resource practices". Chapter eleven explains the role of managers to support employee involvement and ensure continuing success of the organization. Chapter twelve suggests that unions should act as partners with business to ensure employee involvement. Chapters thirteen and fourteen describes how organizations will look if they adopt the high employee involvement model. The chapters also provide change strategies for implementation

Lee, V., Dedrick, R., & Smith, J. (1991). The effects of the social organization of schools in teachers' efficacy and satisfaction. *Sociology of Education, 64* , 190-208.

Research suggests that the social organization of schools has an important impact on teachers and students. Using hierarchical linear modeling techniques, the authors explore the links between school organization and the self-efficacy

and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. While the authors acknowledge that there are many ways in which school may affect teachers and teaching, they narrow their inquiry to the social dimensions of schools as organization, to teachers' expressions of satisfaction with their work, and self-perceptions of their efficacy doing their work. The authors investigate the relationship between a teacher's sense of control over classroom practice and self-efficacy. Drawn from the Administrator and Teacher Survey From High School and Beyond, the sample includes 8,488 full time teachers in 354 Catholic and public high schools. Such elements as principal leadership, communal school organization, an orderly environment and average levels of control granted to teachers, influences average efficacy. Higher levels of efficacy in Catholic schools (than in public schools) are explained by organizational differences.

A fundamental intrinsic influence to determining efficacy and satisfaction is the expectations teachers' hold for their students (pp.i91). If students are seen as having low ability or as being unable to learn, teachers tend to lower their expectations of their own ability to teach them. When dealing with uncooperative students, teachers, because of their lowered sense of efficacy, focus on discipline over instruction (Brophy & Everston, 1981; Ashton & Webb, 1986). In the authors study, the strongest predictor of teacher efficacy is community (pp.204). These findings are in general agreement with research in sociology of education including Bryk & Driscoll, 1988; Newmann et al., 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989; Rutter, 1986). Schools in which teachers feel more efficacious are like to be environments in which human relationships are supportive, where teachers share beliefs and values with respect to the central mission of the school, where they feel accepted and respected, etc. The authors suggest that these findings are not surprising in their view, but that it is troubling that there are so many schools in which teachers do not find such respect, shared values, and support.

Lee, V. E., Bryk, A. S., & Smith, J. B. (1993). The organization of effective secondary schools. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education* (Vol. 19, pp. 171-267). Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

The authors use a multilevel approach to investigate schooling, taking into account policy and organizational influences outside the school, and the layers of organization in the school (tracks, departments, and classrooms) that intervene between the central administration and the individual students. They note that reconceptualization of schooling, and more complex, nuanced understandings of student's learning and experiences have emerged from the interplay of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies.

The aim of the authors of this literature review was to impose a framework on the substantial body of literature on school organization and its effects, housed in two differing views of schools--as formal organizations and as small societies. To simplify their analysis, they have termed these perspectives bureaucratic and communitarian. Research and policy efforts have been dominated by the bureaucratic perspective for several decades. Recently, the communitarian alternative has received renewed interests. The authors summarize immense volumes of literature of the two perspectives and offer an assessment of the implications of these two organizational alternatives for current efforts at school reform.

Consequences of the bureaucratization of schooling, and a critique of communitarian approaches, are that it draws our attention to the importance of individual commitment. Moreover, such commitment is grounded by those specific beliefs, values and normative understandings. It is the authors contention that efforts to reform schools will continue to disappoint us until we seriously engage these concerns.

The authors suggest that school effects literature in its early manifestation were conceptualized with a functionalist orientation based on human capital theory. Although seeking answers to ostensibly different questions, these two streams of work shared a common viewpoint--they conceived the organizational structure of a school as a "black box". As such the internal workings of the school were a peripheral element in the investigation. What mattered, instead were inputs and outputs. Neither research stream concerned itself with the internal workings of schools, the process through which schools produce desired outcomes and their organizational structures might influence the distribution of these outcomes.

In this review, the authors point out two themes that the studies incorporate: 1) the process of schooling and learning extends over time; and 2) appropriate investigation of the schooling process must take into account appropriate levels of inputs and outputs. A third and critical development was the revelation of American schools as internally differing institutions. Rather than the earlier focus on between-school differences in resources, the latter work highlighted the fact that a major source of inequity in American education laid within the same school.

Lee, V., & Smith, J. (1996). Collective responsibility for learning and its effects on gains in achievement for early secondary school students. *American Journal of Education, 104* , 103-147.

"How the organization of teachers' work affects students in their early years is the focus of this study. A nationally representative sample of 11,692 high school sophomores in 820 U.S. high schools and 9,904 of those students' teachers was used, drawn from the base year and first follow-up of the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88). Organizational effects were evaluated on students' gains in achievement (in mathematics, reading, science, and social studies) between eighth and tenth grad, as well as the social distribution of those gains. Te study focused on three constructs measuring the organization of teachers' work: collective responsibility for student learning, staff cooperation, and control over classroom and school work conditions. Results were very consistent: achievement gains are significantly higher in schools where teachers take collective responsibility for students' academic success or failure

rather than blaming students for their own failure. Achievement gains were also higher in schools with more cooperation among staff. Moreover, the distribution of achievement gains is more socially equitable in schools with high levels of collective responsibility for learning."

Leiberman, A. (1999). Community means more than team work. *Journal of Staff Development, 20* (2), 46-48.

The author reminds us that a community can support traditional norms and practices that are not conducive to teacher and student learning. She sites McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) regarding the ability of professional communities to enable or constrain certain teacher learning. The author reports that Newman and Wehlage found a "self-conscious professional community" was characteristic of schools that were deliberately restructuring. They identified three salient features of community. They are: 1) teachers pursue a clear, shared purpose for all student learning, 2) Teachers engage in collaborative activity to achieve their purposes, and 3) Teachers take collective responsibility for student learning. The author then goes on to discuss professional networks which she labels" external learning communities". She discusses how networks are simultaneously powerful and fragile. She asserts they are powerful because they provide a supportive environment that permits risk taking and collegial discourse. They are fragile because they require participants to find a balance between the "inside knowledge of participants" and the "outside knowledge" of policy makers creating collaborative governance structures that are neither too centralized or decentralized, being flexible and adaptable rather than holding on to old forms, as well as deciding the inclusive, exclusiveness of the network.. She comments that the relationship between teachers and researchers is ambivalent but networks can help teachers become open to outside ideas which results in inquiry and reflection into one's own practice. She asks the question" what are the conditions under which teachers will inquire into their own practice?" and responds that only when teachers see "their own practice as problematic and adopt inquiry do the become involved in challenging their own assumptions, identifying issues of practice; studying their own students and classroom"(p48). She suggests that a professional community is central to affording teachers the opportunity to "frame and name" problems of practice and larger school issues thus allowing teachers to "become more aware of their position in the world" (p48).

Leithwood, K., & Aitken, R. (1995). *Making schools smarter: A system for monitoring school progress* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

This text uses the image of "learning organizations" as one example of an image towards which schools can strive, enabling leaders to have a framework for decision-making. The first chapter provides an overview of the district monitoring system, including its assumptions and supporting evidence. The second and third chapters look closer at what is meant by a learning organization, especially at those features that relate to the monitoring system. Chapters 4 through 9 describe specific elements of the monitoring system: inputs, outcomes, and processes (mission/goals; planning, managing, leading, and instructing; structure and decision making; and policies and procedures). Chapter 10 provides guidelines for the use of the monitoring information. Chapter 11 details the application and interpretation of the survey instruments of Chapter 12 (district level) and Chapter 13 (school level).

Further details of Chapters 2 and 3: Schools and districts can be viewed as bureaucracies, communities, or a learning organization. The sources of motivation and the nature of the learning process vary with these three views. The learning organization emphasizes both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational sources and focuses on meeting esteem and self-actualization needs. It approaches learning as an active process with constructivist explanations and a dependence on individual and social sense making. Additionally, the Learning Organization focuses on quality in a collaborative environment. Transformational leadership facilitates a power sharing, team centered, and highly responsive organization. Four conditions that give rise to organizational learning are described as school/district culture, school improvement strategies, decentralized structures, and the degree of turbulence in the internal and external environments.

Leithwood, K., Leonard, L., & Sharratt, L. (1998). Conditions fostering organizational learning in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 34* (2), 243-276.

This article reports the results of synthesizing evidence from three independent studies of conditions that foster organizational learning in schools carried out in three different contexts, but with comparable methods. Its purpose was to identify such conditions from state, district, and school sources and to assess the context sensitivity of each of the conditions. Qualitative data were provided by a total sample of 111 teachers in 14 schools. Results identified a large number of conditions that fostered organizational learning in all schools. Among the most important of these conditions were the transformational forms of principal leadership. [Detailed information on research design and sample selection is provided on pp. 250-257.]

Research questions included: which variables have the strongest overall influence on organizational learning (OL) processes? To what extent is the influence of the variable context dependent? Numbers representing a rank indicates the relative influence on OL of these variables. Data in Table 1,2,3 provide information as to the basis for the ranking. Variables most strongly influencing OL processes included the district (13.8%), school leadership (11.4%), and school culture (8.3%). When only overall direct associations with OL processes are considered, district and school culture retain their preeminent influence and school structures (4.7%) and policies and resources (4.7%) emerge as moderately influential. Evidence concerning the consistency of rankings offers reasonable compelling support for the claims that the variable most frequently cited by teachers as contributing to their individual and collective learning were similar across

different contexts (pp. 260).

Leithwood, K. (1999). Redesigning the organization: Culture, structure, policy and community relationships in changing leadership for changing times.

This chapter explores the role of transformational leadership practices, which influence school culture, and then identifies three sets of leadership practices which directly affect classroom teachers. The authors conducted a review of the transformational leadership literature, which identified a variety of factors associated with strengthening the school culture and aimed at the form of the school's culture. Strengthening characteristics include: 1) clarifying school vision in relation to collaborative work and students served2) reinforcing norms of excellence, 3) focusing attention on and publicly communication school's mission, 4) using symbols and rituals to express cultural values, 5) confronting conflict openly, 6) using slogans and motivational phrases repeatedly, 7) using bureaucratic mechanisms to support cultural values, 8) helping staff to clarify shared beliefs and values, and 9) acting in a manner consistent with schools shared beliefs and values. Form characteristics include: 1) sharing power and responsibility, 2) eliminating boundaries between administrators, teachers, and other school groups, and 3) affording opportunities for collaborative staff work. The author uses a case study as an example of these characteristics in operation.

The authors continue by reviewing the literature on transformational leadership for indicators of creating and maintaining shared decision-making processes and notes that there is little research about culture building leadership practices at the district level. Processes identified were:1) distributing power and responsibility widely, 2) sharing decision making power with staff, 3) self-managed staff decision making committees, 4) considering staff opinions in decision-making, 5) utilizing effective group problem solving techniques, 6) teacher autonomy in decision-making, 7) affording time for planning, collaboration, and decision-making. The authors then refer to their case study to provide examples of theses processes.

Finally, the authors identify other leadership practices influencing school culture that although not identified in the literature on transformational leadership but was present in their case study. They include: 1) school policies clearly aimed at fostering student growth and school vision, 2) school policies are informed by clear evidence, 3) equal consideration is given to the implementation, evaluation and refinement of policies as to policy development, and 4) developing relationships with the community at large. The authors conclude by describing three aspects of the relationship that their case study school developed with the parent community. They are: 1) sensitivity and responsiveness to community needs, 2) realistically modest expectations for parent involvement, and 3) acknowledgement of family circumstances and concomitant modification of instruction.

Leithwood, K., Jantz, D., & Steinbach, R. (1999). Creating the Conditions for Growth in Teacher's Knowledge and Skill. *Changing Leadership for Changing Times* . Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Leithwood et al. pose the question of how best to develop individual teachers capacity in a school context. They offer a well-conceived school-improvement process facilitated by transactional and transformative leadership as a solution. The authors argue that learning through situated cognition occurs when teachers experience "authentic, non-routine professional activity embedded in a supportive school culture" (pp151) and have the opportunity to reflect critically on the subject. The authors use existing case study data to consider the development of teacher capacity in a school improvement context and its relationship to transformative and transactional leadership practices. They identify three mechanisms utilizing transformative leadership that facilitate teacher development including the provision of monetary and other resources to support teacher development activities and attention to the development of a supportive school culture. They conclude that school leadership initiatives can contribute to teacher development when 1) adequate financial, time, personnel, material and other resources are available, 2) opportunities for teachers to develop a shared view of the schools overall mission are present, 3) teachers assess their own needs for growth and have access to those sources, 4) the development of a collaborative culture that affords opportunities for authentic decision making and meaningful interaction with colleagues are available, 5) teacher's accomplishments are recognized and self-efficacy is enhanced, and 6) responsibility for teacher development is widely distributed throughout the school. The authors assert that a well-conceived school improvement plan provides a host of opportunities for teacher development including situated cognition, reflection on existing practice, novel problem solving opportunities, possibilities for collaboration, clarification of school purpose, and enhance teacher's commitment to a set of shared goals.

Liethwood, K., Jantz, D., Steinbach,R., (1999). Leadership for Organizational Learning. In *Changing Leadership for Changing Times* . Philadelphia: Open University Press.

The authors contend that organizational learning is a multi-level phenomenon whose continuum extends from individuals learning within the context of an organization to the collective learning of the whole organization. The focus of this chapter is on whole school learning and how transformative leadership can foster organizational learning. The authors contend that this particularly relevant given the significant trend towards site based management and devolving authority to the school site. The conclusions they draw in this chapter are based on seven studies conducted by themselves and their students. Four studies were concerned with team learning and the other three studies were concerned with whole

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school learning. Data from these studies were used to confirm, dismiss, or expand existing notions of the role of leadership in creating a learning organization.

The authors offer an example from Schoenfeld (1989) to clarify their notion of collective learning and then identify internal and external conditions that foster group learning. Internal conditions include: shared purpose, a sense of cohesiveness, encouragement of divergent opinions, open expression of individual members, awareness of limitation in groups knowledge and skill for accomplishing a particular goal, intense and frequent interaction of members, balanced autonomy, high level of moral, "enough"(pp173) time to meet , discussion of collective doubts, and relaxed and flexible group structure. External conditions include staff support, school growth, shared beliefs, staff resentment, lack of resources, and teacher burnout.

The authors use data from the seven studies to identify essential aspects of leadership for small group learning. They include appropriate problem interpretation skills, facility in collaborative goal development, role responsibility and knowledge as an important leadership value, anticipation of constraints and obstacles likely to arise, obstacles to goal attainment not perceived as major impediments, the capacity to learn and build on the perceptions of teachers, the ability to anticipate and handle constraints flexibly, skill in maintaining a smoothly functioning group process, openness to new information, ability to keep groups focused , checking for consensus, commitment to planning follow-up for group discussion, confidence, a strong reflective disposition, the ability to learn from experience, and the use of humor in tense situation.

The authors briefly touch on district conditions and conditions with in the school, which foster whole school learning. District conditions include alignment and understanding of district mission and vision with school purpose and goals, collaborative and harmonious cultures, the acceptance of need for continuous change, opportunities for school based staff to participate in shaping both district and school level decisions, the employment of multiple strategies for reaching out to schools, district policies identified as promoting learning, and access to special expertise and resources. In school conditions include collaborative and collegial norms, structures that allow greater decisions making by teachers, structures that facilitate cross-department appointments, integrated curriculum, and team teaching, and policies and resources, which foster the collective learning of teachers.

The authors conclude from the seven studies that essential features of leadership for whole school learning are in keeping with the seven aspects of transformative leadership. The authors claim that not only do the data confirm alignment between leadership for learning and transformative leadership they illuminate more subtle aspects of leadership that facilitate learning. They include: identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, conveying high performance expectations, providing appropriate models, providing individualized support, providing intellectual stimulation, building a productive school culture, and helping structure the school to enhance participation in decision making. They conclude that direct leader-teacher interaction and skills in organizational design are essential to organizational learning.

Levin, H. M. (1987). Accelerated schools for disadvantaged students. *Educational Leadership, 44* (6), 19-21.

In this short article, the author sets out the rationale against the more typical remediation programs for disadvantaged students. These programs fail to close the achievement gap between these students and their more "advantaged" peers. An effective program would be characterized by high standards, high status for participants, set a timeline for achievement, and be faster-paced (rather than slower) and engaging for students in order to facilitate learning. An effective program would also involve parents and "extensive participation of teachers" (pp. 20). The author briefly describes the Accelerated School approach as it fulfills the criteria of an effective program for disadvantaged youth. He suggests that it can be fulfilled within the existing budgetary constraints of current schools.

Levin, H. M. (1991). *Accelerating the progress of all students* (Rockefeller Institute Special Report 31). Albany, NY: State University of New York
Nelson A. Rockefeller Institute of Government.

The Accelerated School Program is designed to improve the education of disadvantaged students by using "acceleration" techniques used with gifted and talented students. The goal is to speed up the learning of at-risk students so they will be able to perform at grade level by the end of elementary school. Central to the strategy is the placement of curriculum and instructional decisions in the hands of the instructional staff, requiring a complete restructuring of the traditional school organization. The emphasis on local responsibility for educational outcomes requires an appropriate decision- structure built around the school's unity of purpose. The school must also develop the capacity to identify challenges, to understand these challenges, and to implement and evaluate solutions. Fifty schools nationwide have begun the six-year process needed to implement the accelerated school program. Cost estimates average about $1,000 per pupil per year. Although many issues regarding curriculum development, changing staff roles, and developing parent participation will require further exploration, the Accelerated Schools Model offers hope for closing the educational gap between America and other countries, and between the disadvantaged and the advantaged. Comments by T. PP. Fitzgerald, Frances Kemmerer, and Steven D. Gold and a response by the presenter are included.

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Levin, H. M. (1991). *Building school capacity for effective teacher empowerment: Applications to elementary schools with at-risk students* (CPRE-RR-019). New Brunswick, NJ: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

"The move toward teacher empowerment in elementary schools with at-risk student populations is explored in this paper. Progress in addressing the needs of all students, especially those at risk, depends upon implementing teacher empowerment through participative decision-making. Methodology is based on experiences of the Accelerated Schools Program at Stanford University, which developed accelerated schools for at-risk student in five states, and a literature review on organizational effectiveness. The introduction examines issues of responsibility for educational decisions and their consequences as viewed by teachers, administrators, and parents in schools attended by at-risk students. A conclusion is that school staff at the site level, supplemented by student and parental participation, should make many crucial decisions regarding curriculum, instructional strategies, materials, personnel selection, and resource allocation. The second part reviews research on the relationship between participative decision-making and organizational effectiveness in non-school organizations. The third part offers a design for building the capacity of schools and districts based on site-based decision making strategies, focusing on the accelerated schools concept, unity of purpose, teacher empowerment and support, and accountability. The concluding section concerns roles and responsibilities of all actors in the school scenario, with emphasis on district and school goals and the need for specificity, implementation of plans, various levels of assessment, consequences of success or failure, and importance of structure."

Levinthal, D., & March, J. G. (1981). A model of adaptive organizational search. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization, 2* , 307-333.

"A model of organizational change through adaptive search for new technologies is developed and explored. The model is in the tradition of behavioral models of organizational choice and learning associated with work by Winter, Nelson, and Radner. It permits the exploration of simultaneous organizational adaptation in search strategies, competences, and aspirations under conditions of environmental instability and ambiguity. The model exhibits the extent to which variation in organizational behavior and performance reflect the distributional consequences of simple adaptation in ambiguous environments, as well as some adverse consequences of rapid learning."

Levitt, B., & March, J. G. (1988). Organizational learning. *Annual Review of Sociology, 14* , 319-340.

This paper reviews the literature on organizational learning. Organizational learning is viewed as routine-based, history-dependent, and target-oriented. Organizations are seen as learning by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behavior. Within this perspective on organizational learning, topics covered include how organizations learn from direct experience, how organizations learn from the experience of others, and how organizations develop conceptual frameworks or paradigms for interpreting that experience. The section on organizational memory discusses how organizations encode, store, and retrieve the lessons of history despite the turnover of personnel and the passage of time. Organizational learning is further complicated by the ecological structure of the simultaneously adapting behavior of other organizations, and by an endogenously changing environment. The final section discusses the limitations as well as the possibilities of organizational learning as a form of intelligence.

Levitt, B., & March, J. G. (1996). Organizational Learning. In M. Cohen & L. Sproull (Eds.), *Organizational Learning* (pp. 516-540). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

"This paper reviews the literature on organizational learning. Organizational learning is viewed as routine-based, history-dependent, and target-oriented. Organizations are seen as learning by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behavior. Within this perspective on organizational learning, topics covered include how organizations learn from direct experience, how organizations learn from the experience of others, and how organizations develop conceptual frameworks or paradigms for interpreting that experience. The section on organizational memory discusses how organizations encode, store, and retrieve the lessons of history despite the turnover of personnel and the passage of time. Organizational learning is further complicated by the ecological structure of the simultaneously adapting behavior of other organizations, and by an endogenously changing environment. The final section discusses the limitations as well as the possibilities of organizational learning as a form of intelligence."

Lieberman, A. (Ed.). (1986). *Rethinking School Improvement: Research, Craft, and Concept* : Teachers College Press.

The recent thinking of 20 experts in the field of school improvement is represented in this collection of essays. The authors have participated in studies from the national level to the single school level, have been involved in past and present reform efforts, and have contributed to educational policy and theory. In this book they go beyond their previous thinking to consider new avenues to school improvement. The first section of the book comprises essays that extend and refine old ideas. The essays and their authors are: "The Preparation of Teachers Revisited," by Seymour Sarason; "How Do We Think about Our Craft?" by Maxine Greene; "Seductive Images and Organizational Realities in Professional Development,"by Judith Warren Little; "Mutual Adaptation and Mutual Accomplishment: Images of Change in a Field Experiment," by Tom Bird; "Rethinking the Quest for School Improvement: Some Findings from the DESSI Study," by A. Michael Huberman and Matthew B. Miles; "Reconstructing Educational Innovation," by Louis M. Smith, John J.

Prunty, David C. Dwyer, and Paul F. Kleine; and "School Improvement: Themes and Variations," by Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller. The book's second section focuses on fresh ways to think about school improvement. These essays and their authors are: "Educational Change: Revival Tent, Tinker toys, Jungle, or Carnival?" by Terrence Deal; "Teachers and Mothers: Facing New Beginnings," by Karen Kepler Zumwalt; "Images of Schools," by Phillip C. Schlecty and Anne Walker Joslin; "Teacher Evaluation and School Improvement," by Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin; "Interactive Research and Development: Partners in Craft," by Joann Jacullo-Noto; "Teacher Directed In-Service: A Model That Works," by Judith Schwartz; and "Beyond the Commission Reports: Toward Meaningful School Improvement," by A. Harry Passow.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1991). Revisiting the social realities of teaching. In A. Lieberman & L. Miller (Eds.), *Staff Development for Education in the '90's* (2nd ed., pp. 92-109). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors revisit their earlier work on teachers' realities of teaching to uncover the potential for improving teaching and learning. In that work, they named eight "understandings" (pp. 92) of the realities of teaching: each teacher has a personalized, idiosyncratic style; a teacher derives rewards from students above all; the links between teaching and learning (one's success rate) is always uncertain; the knowledge base of teaching is also uncertain; teaching is based on vague and conflicting goals; a certain level of control is necessary before any teaching can happen; professional support is lacking--autonomy and isolation are the rule; and teaching is an art more than a science. This list misses the routinization of teaching, so the authors describe themes to capture the real "life" of teaching: certain rhythms, rules of practicality and privacy, norms of interactions with students and administrators, and strong feelings of the value of teaching, one's status in society, and self-doubt of teaching skill. Though this description of the daily life of teachers came from the late '70s, current research shows that it hasn't changed, despite the push towards reform and restructuring. The authors name these implications for staff development: it must attend to culture building; it must focus on teacher inquiry into practice; it must connect human development and learning for students and teachers; and teaching is still a craft rather than a science.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1991). *Staff development for education in the '90's* . (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

This volume highlights the latest work on "professionalizing teaching, restructuring schools, and rethinking teacher education" (pp. vii). Common themes among the chapters are understanding the teacher as learner, leader and colleague, viewing teacher development as it relates teachers to students, realizing staff development is a continual process, and recognizing the value and importance of informal networks for learning and support. In Chapter 1, Maxine Greene describes finding a personal reality as a teacher and the necessity of challenging oneself and the world. In Chapter 2, Susan Loucks-Horsley looks at stages of teacher development including understandings of the teacher as an individual as well as part of a collective. In Chapter 3, Sharon Oja presents a comprehensive view of theories of adult development as it relates to teacher learning. Milbrey McLaughlin discusses enabling and constraining elements of school contexts in Chapter 4. Myrna Cooper stresses the need for collective enterprises in education to create the skills and abilities needed to restructure schools in Chapter 5. In Chapter 6, the editors revisit earlier work in social realities of teaching and look at how theory and practice relate and (should) influence staff development. Chapter 7 looks at strategies currently used to involve teachers in staff development as leaders of their own learning (Anna E. Richert). Peter Holly then gives a comprehensive look at action research in Chapter 8. In Chapter 9, Patricia Wasley looks at the lives of three teacher-leaders and their difficulties. In Chapter 10, Judith Schwartz continues with teacher leadership by looking at how roles and responsibilities come to be created. In Chapter 11, Hilton Smith and Eliot Wigginton and colleagues describe the Foxfire approach to teaching and learning, a teacher outreach network. Robert McClure in Chapter 12 describes the Mastery In Learing Project, another network involving students and teachers actively engaged in school change. Gary Griffin writes the Afterword, summarizing current understandings of staff development.

Lieberman, A. (1995). Practices that support teacher development: Transforming conceptions of professional learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76* (8), 591-596.

The conventional view of staff development as a transferable package of knowledge to be distributed to teachers in bite-sized pieces needs radical rethinking. Practices which support new conceptions of teaching, learning, schooling and teacher- learning run counter to some deeply held notions about staff development and in-service that have long influenced educators and the public's view of teachers. In the traditional view of staff development, workshops, and conferences conducted outside of the school "count," but authentic opportunities to learn from and with colleagues *inside the schoo* l do not. The process of restructuring schools places demands on the whole organization that make it imperative that individuals redefine their work in relation to the way the entire schools works. With respect to teacher learning, this means going well beyond the "technical tinkering" that has often characterized in-service training.

The author suggests that the ways teachers learn may be more like the ways students learn that has previously been recognized. Learning theorists and organizational theorists are teaching us that people learning best through active involvement and through thinking about and becoming articulate about what they have learned. Processes, practices and policies that are build on this view of learning are at the heart of a more expanded view of teacher development that encourages teachers to involve themselves as learners in much the same way as they wish their students would.

The author continues on to describe what this looks like in the pedagogical practice of schools and ways to understand connections between teacher development and school development. In her view, if reform plans are to be made operational, thus enabling teacher to really change the way they work-then teacher must have opportunities to think about, try out and hone new practices. Lieberman suggest that this can be done in a number of ways including: building new roles for teachers (as teacher-leader, peer coach, teacher researcher); by creating new structures (e.g. problem solving groups, decision making teams), by working on new tasks (e.g. Journals and proposals, assessment, creating standards), by creating a culture of inquiry wherein professional learning is expected, sought after, and an on-going part of teaching and school life. Being involved as learners and participants provides (teachers) openings to new knowledge and broadens the agenda for thought and action. In important ways, teacher learning links individual professional learning to collegial and communal learning.

Lieberman, A., & Grolnick, M. (1996). Networks, reform, and the professional development of teachers. *Teachers College Record, 98* (1), 7-45.

Networks have become an increasingly important organizational form in the movement to reform American Education. Networks are a way of engaging school-based educators in directing their own learning, allowing them to side step the limitations of institutional roles, hierarchies and geographic locations, and encouraging educators to work together with many different kinds of people. Participants have opportunities to grow and develop in a professional community that focuses on their development, providing ways of learning that are more in keeping with their lived professional lives. (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Little, 1993; McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993). The most important general study of networks, done by Allen Parker (1977) described five "key" ingredients drawn from studying over sixty networks organized for education improvement more than 20 years ago. He argued that these networks should have: 1) a strong sense of commitment to innovation; 2) a sense of shared purpose; 3) a mixture of information sharing and psychological support; 4) an effective facilitator; and 5) voluntary participation and equal treatment. Parker's work served as the basis for an initial working definition as the authors inquired into the nature of contemporary educational reform networks. The authors studied sixteen networks and found five descriptive organizational themes woven into the fabric of all sixteen, as well as five tensions that were a source of recurring negotiation. The five organizational themes were: 1) Purpose and Direction; 2) Building Collaboration, Consensus and Commitment; 3) Activities and Relationships as Building Blocks; 4) Leadership: Cross-Cultural Brokering and Facilitating and Keeping the Values Visible; and 5) Dealing with the Funding Problem. Various tensions that occurred consistently were noted, and viewed as an inherent part of the dynamics of how networks organized, built new structures, learned to collaborate and developed a sense of community.

Little, J. W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. *American Educational Research Journal, 19* (3), 325-240.

"Semi structured interviews with 105 teachers and 14 administrators, supplemented by observation, provide data for a focused ethnography of the school as a workplace, specifically of organizational characteristics conducive to continued "learning on the job." Four relatively successful and two relatively unsuccessful schools were studied. More successful schools, particularly those receptive to staff development, were differentiated from less successful and less receptive schools by patterned norms of interaction among staff. In successful schools more than in unsuccessful ones, teachers valued and participated in norms of collegiality and continuous improvement and experimentation; they pursued a greater range of professional interactions with fellow teachers or administrators, including talk about instruction, structured observation, and shared planning or preparation. They did so with greater frequency, with a greater number and diversity of persons and locations, and with a more concrete and precise shared language. Findings suggest critical social organizational variables that lend themselves to quantitative study."

Little, J. W. (1990). Conditions of professional development in secondary schools. In M. W. McLaughlin, J. E. Talbert, & N. Bascia (Eds.), *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* (pp. 187-223). New York: Teachers College Press.

This chapter analyzes the working conditions that directly or indirectly affect secondary school teacher's professional growth over time. Professional development here may be in any of 3 dimensions: classroom instructor, colleague and member of a faculty, and participant of a broader occupational community. Factors of social organization influence teacher's motivation to work, thereby influencing their motivation to develop professionally. Motivation to learn and work is closely linked. Important factors include: 1) the multiple goals of schools and the degree of emphasis on achievement including the availability of resources, 2) success and satisfaction from students, dealing with the challenges of adolescence and relationship between student and teacher goals, 3) teacher relationships as viewed in the level of collective responsibility for student success, individual or collective responsibility for curriculum development, salience of subject matter departments, and frequency and importance of performance evaluations, 4) extent of subject affiliation and attention to student needs/desires, and acquisition of a subject assignment that assures the levels and topics they want to teach. Opportunity to learn comes from two forms: formal sources such as university courses, and district and school sponsored workshops; less structured forms that happen during the workday through learning on the job or trial and error and leadership opportunities within the school. Participation in professional organizations by teachers has not been studied.

Little, J. W. (1993). Teachers professional development in a climate of educational reform. *Educational Evaluation & Policy Analysis, 15* (2), 129-151.

Little's essay posits a problem of fit among five streams for reform and prevailing configurations of teacher's professional development. It argues that the dominant training-and-coaching model-focused on expanding an individual repertoire of well-defined classrooms proactive-is not adequate to the conceptions or requirements of teaching embedded in present reform initiatives. Subject matter collaboratives and other emerging alternatives are found to employ six principles that stand up to the complexity of reforms in subject matter teaching, equity, assessment, school organization and the professionalization of teaching. The principles form criteria for assessing professional development policies and practices. Although stated as design principles-that is in normative language-the principles are subject to the kinds of rigorous study and evaluation by which their consequences for teachers, students and the nature of schooling might be demonstrated (pp.138).

The six principles for professional development covered in Little's essay (pp.137-139) include: 1) Professional development offers meaningful intellectual, social and emotional engagement with ideas, materials and with colleagues both in and out of teaching; 2) Professional development takes explicit account of the contexts of teaching and the experience of teachers such as focus study groups, teacher collaboratives, long-term partnerships and similar modes of professional development afford teachers a means of locating new ideas in relation to their individual and institutional histories, practices and circumstances. This principle challenges the notion of a one-size-fits-all approach to professional development; 3) Professional development offers support for informed dissent. In the pursuit of good schools, consensus may proved to be an overstated virtue. To permit, or even to foster, informed dissent places a premium on the evaluation of alternatives and the close scrutiny of underlying assumptions; 4) Professional development places classroom practice in the larger contexts of school practice and the educational careers of children. It is grounded in a big picture perspective on the purposes and practices of schooling, providing teachers a means of seeing and acting upon the connections among student experiences, teachers' classroom practice and school wide structures and culture; 5) Professional development prepared teachers to employ the techniques and perspectives of inquiry-providing the possibility for teachers and others to interrogate their individual beliefs and institutional patterns of practice; and 6) The governance of professional development ensures bureaucratic restraint and a balance between the interests of the individual and the interests of the institution.

Little, J. W. (1996). *Organizing schools for teacher learning* . Paper presented at the AERA Invitational Conference on Teacher Development and School Reform.

The premise of this paper is that the school can and should play a far more powerful and consequential role in integrating teacher development more fully into the ongoing work of teachers. The paper addresses three aspects of organizing for effective teacher learning. The first, and most extensively covered, concentrates on the ways in which organizational policy, structure and culture supply both the impetus and the opportunity for teacher learning. The second examines the opportunities for more productively allocating professional development resources and joining professional development opportunities inside and outside the school, and the third aspect address the policy and resource implications of a school that is more persuasively organized to promote steady growth among its teachers. The paper concludes with recommendations for research usefully targeted to the school and its various policy environments. Throughout the papers two main organizing principles are emphasized: a collective focus and responsibility for student learning; and the formation of professional community inside and outside the school.

Long, M. J. (1996). Systemic reform: A new mantra for professional development. *The Mathematics Teacher, 89* (7), 584-587.

The author defines systemic reform as "fundamental, comprehensive, and coordinated change that occurs when all essential elements of a system--human resources, curriculum and instruction, assessment and evaluation, management, policy and governance, finance, and external relations--are engaged and acting in concert" (pp. 587). In order to be successful, professional development within a context of systemic reform must attend to all aspects of the system. Solutions, strategies, and program designs will result from "a comprehensive perspective and from communal wrestling with questions, data, and, yes, even impressions"(pp. 587). Teachers will need an understanding of the process and a willingness to ask appropriate questions in order to implement current reforms to a point where they will be more than the latest educational fad. The author explains how the Urban Systems Initiatives (USI) program supported by NSF has a good chance of being a successful reform.

Lortie, D. (1975). *School teacher: A sociological study* . Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Schoolteacher is a sociological study that examines the nature and ethos of teaching and how teaching differs from other occupations. Lortie asserts that is both the structure of the educational institution and the meaning that teachers attribute to their work which results in a unique constellation of sentiments and problems. The first chapter describes the structural features of teaching and how they have remained stable or changes over the last three hundred years. Chapters 2,3,and 4

describe the recruitment, socialization, and the distribution of career rewards as well as the effect they have on teacher orientation. Chapter 5 describes teachers' goals and chapter 6 describes the problems teachers face achieving those goals. Chapter 7 describes classroom teachers' sentiments and chapter 8 explores teacher preference for day-to-day interactions. The final chapter relates what is discussed in the first eight to three possible scenarios for education in the future.

Louis, K. S. (1990). Social and community values and the quality of teachers' work life. In M. W. McLaughlin, J. E. Talbert, & N. Bascia (Eds.), *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* (pp. 17-39). New York: Teachers College Press.

Author argues that before we debate what to do to improve teaching, we need to consider the role of the educational value system, specifically including interconnected ideals, customs, and institutions related to education about which we have a strong affective regard. This is based on the assumptions that values affect work conditions and how these conditions are evaluated, public discourse usually directly involves values, and only a tiny fraction of these values are ever examined. The authors explore the way values (specifically basic cultural values, professional values, and community values) affect "teacher quality work life (TQWL)". Research provides 7 characteristics of TQWL, though these are not equally important: 1) "respect and status in the larger community," 2)"participation in decision making that augments teachers' sense of influence or control over their work setting," 3)"frequent and stimulating professional interaction among peers within the school," 4)"opportunity to make full use of existing skills and knowledge and to acquire new ones and experiment," 5)"structures and processes that contribute to a high sense of efficacy and relevance" like frequent feedback on student learning, 6)"adequate resources for carrying out the job" and "a pleasant physical working environment," and 7)"a sense of congruence between personal goals and the school's goals." Cultural values at issue in education include the degree of homogeneity in schools, as in areas of curriculum and standards, the extent to which parents can choose a school that shares their values; the general view towards change in schools. Professional values differ on the questions of is teaching mostly a scientifically or artistically based activity, and is a teacher an autonomous professional or part of a collective body. Community is defined using Hunter's (1975) classification: "1) Community is a functional spatial unit, 2) community is patterned social interaction, and 3) community is any unit of collective identity." (PP.30). A cohesive community, one satisfying all three characteristics, affects the TQWL differently than one more fragmented. Also, communities dominated by semi permanent coalitions are more difficult than communities with shifting alliances based on issues or conflicts. Increased discussion on relevant values will affect decisions on practices and policies that will otherwise be less successful

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Getting and managing resources for change. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 239-262). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors used case study and survey data to identify the range of resources necessary for school improvement. "Effective improvement efforts in urban high schools may need a "floor" of $50,000 to $100,000 a year for several years, though moderate changes can be achieved with less" (pp. 242). Time is a crucial resource, with overload expected for central figures. Personnel, especially their quality, were also useful in supporting implementation of change efforts. Space and equipment shortages can usually be overcome or coped with. Educational content resources are also critical for improvement. Substantial amounts of assistance in coaching, training, and coordinating are required for success, and this assistance needs to be compatible with local needs. Empowerment of school staff seems dependent on actual decisions made, and is a "strong resource for improvement" (pp. 256). School staff needs skills to acquire and tailor the various resources from multiple sources, but these must be screened to ensure their fit with school's developing vision.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Vision building in school reform. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 217-238). New York: Teachers College Press.
Given the authors argument that themes and vision are important to successful change programs, this chapter develops the concept of *vision* . Schools meeting these three preconditions will have an easier time of creating a vision: a principal willing to develop a vision, a reasonable level of staff cohesiveness, and some school-based control over staffing. The authors conclude from their case study data that visions develop over the course of the change process and are developed collectively by all those who play active roles in the change process. Developing this vision is a dynamic process utilizing a "complex braid of the evolving themes of the change program" (pp. 237). Though a collective action, the principal plays an important role in spreading the vision and allowing all to share in its development. The authors warn that although the vision is collectively shared, not all staff members will be supportive, but the change effort can and should continue regardless of opposition.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Planning improvement efforts. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 190-216). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors briefly review common planning models and suggest alternate models. The authors use their case study data to illustrate that common planning models may be inappropriate for school reforms and that a more evolutionary model may be more applicable. The data sets up the following steps or stages in planning: 1) building an initial team-finding

energy, 2) administrator dominated planning, 3) early successful action to defuse skepticism, 4) using themes as opposed to a specific mission to guide course of action, 5) allow the process and content to evolve, most likely creating or adapting new themes, 6) move toward shared planning. The authors' survey data corroborated their findings.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). In the beginning: Looking out and looking in. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 171-189). New York: Teachers College Press.

This chapter looks at the effects of external and internal conditions on the outcome of change or reform efforts on a school. Strong support from the community and pressure to improve seemed an important stimulus, while highly politicized communities or those with little consensus on educational priorities were a poor reform context. State influence was negligible, while highly engaged districts with fewer rules were a positive context for change. Also, district programs that included detailed mandates for goals or processes were less effective than programs giving schools much latitude in tailoring and developing goals and processes. Internally, a school's staff cohesiveness, lack of recent failures in school improvement efforts, and an absence of staff remembering some "golden years" will increase the success in a change program. The structure of the school also effects the outcome. Important structural features include clear lines of authority and responsibility, clear role structure, and school autonomy in relation to the district. The authors conclude with comments on the lessons to be learned for those involved in implementing change programs.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). The change process day to day. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 263-287). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors cite many examples from their data that change programs require constant coordination and monitoring to be successful. This coordination may require at least one designated person (frequently more) with legitimate power for the role. Problems should be viewed as a part of change, and the program should be frequently scanned for problems. Successful schools cope with problems with a wider range of methods, but frequently use more pro-active, in-depth methods than less successful schools. The authors discuss typical problems faced by schools implementing a change process, and the nine categories of coping styles and strategies. Better coping is more likely when the school has a coherent, shared vision, believes in learning from experience, allows time and energy for coping, and utilizes external assistance to expand the coping strategies and skills of staff.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Leading and managing change. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 288-297). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors attempt to point out implications of the conclusions from previous chapters. Involved persons at all levels (including districts) need to realize that shared power usually results in an expansion of power as opposed to a gain/loss situation. Evolutionary planning is best, with a cross-role group of people. Communication, drawing conclusions from data for successive actions, and taking initiative are key skills. Creative thinking and collaboration are key skills in developing a shared vision. Individuals' wills are often a factor to be overcome in developing vision since many are afraid of the unknown (the future) and doubt their ability to lead. Resources are essential, and some individuals with the needed power and resources may need to be persuaded that the school needs those resources to change. An important skill is that of the "garage sale junkie" in finding resources and programs that will fit the school from whatever sources are available. Coping strategies are central; passivity and denial rarely work. Those coping strategies that delve deeply into the problem are needed, and the capacities to cope need to be increased. Case study methods are located in the appendices.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Reforming the urban High School: A look at the territory. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 3-18). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors give a broad overview of urban education. It has deteriorated badly in the past two decades. Much pressure currently exists to reform these schools, bringing some knowledge and support. There is a great risk, however, that reforms may fail, resulting in cynicism and despair that could leave school seven worse off than they currently are. Thus, this book focuses on the how of reform. More research has been done on elementary schools that on secondary schools, and these authors feel that if they approach reform from the most difficult view, that of inner-city high schools, that their results will be easily applicable to other less complex situations. Issues to be considered include the diversity of goals in high schools, their complexity, the divisions among teachers in departments, the lack of power of administrators, and the problems of the local environment.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Making change happen: Leading and managing. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 19-36). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors discuss the differences between leading and managing in the real world of a principal. The "old model" for organizing for change is referred to as the bureaucratic model, and according to the authors is not as effective as it once was. Newer models need to focus on effectiveness rather than efficiency. They should be vision driven, guided by

judgment rather than rules (empowerment), accountability based, team-focused, network based, semi-autonomous, multi-specialized, and involved with the "whole person". All of these require good leading and managing. Authors refute many of the conventional wisdoms of change. Data suggest key actions of leaders and managers in motivating a school staff to engage in significant change. Effective change leaders articulate a vision, get shared ownership of the vision, and use evolutionary planning. Effective change managers negotiate the school's relationship with its environment and have deep coping skills.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). Reforming the big-city High School: An overview. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 37-5. New York: Teachers College Press.

The study included 1-hour telephone interviews in 1985-86 with a national survey of urban high school principals (n=207) involved in effective schools programs, and case studies of 5 schools (4 HS, 1 MS) with multiple visits the first year and a follow-up visit 2 years later in 1988. The goal of research was to develop empirically supported generalizations of the problems urban high schools face in implementing effective school programs and the ways these problems affect improvement outcomes. They found that many reform efforts were not attacking the basic elements of the school's teaching and learning process. The planning stage created ownership of the program and energized the school. Implementation is difficult in that it encounters problems inherent in the setting or embedded in the culture of the school. The principal or others with can generally deal with other problems with implementation or change management issues in the school. District relationships may be a continual source of problems for a school, even when districts "highly support" improvement efforts. Schools with change programs are changing, more quickly in some areas than in others. Producing real effects, however, takes time and many are too optimistic about the time frame.

Louis, K. S., Rosenblum, S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). On the move: Two success stories. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 55-97). New York: Teachers College Press.

The details of the case studies of two successful urban high schools involved in effective schools programs. Multiple visits were conducted over one year, with a follow up visit 2 years later. This chapter includes the internal and external environment of each school, the elements and goals of the change program, its implementation, preliminary results, and status two years later. The schools shared "sustained work over several years, visionary leadership, a collegial cadre with shared humanistic values, willingness to make structural changes when needed, [and] assertive garnering of resources" (pp. 97). There are also striking differences. One school had a more charismatic and forceful leader than the other, the pace of instructional improvements and teacher empowerment was distinctly different, and funding was more predictable at one than the other.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* . New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors give a broad overview of the deterioration of urban education in recent decades. The authors' second chapter then discusses the differences between leading and managing in the real world of a principal. The study included 1-hour telephone interviews in 1985-86 with a national survey of urban high school principals (n=207) involved in effective schools programs, and case studies of 5 schools (4 HS, 1 MS) with multiple visits the first year and a follow-up visit 2 years later in 1988. The case studies are detailed in this text. The goal of research was to develop empirically supported generalizations of the problems urban high schools face in implementing effective school programs and the ways these problems affect improvement outcomes. They found that many reform efforts were not attacking the basic elements of the school's teaching and learning process. The data sets up the following steps or stages in planning: 1) building an initial team--finding energy, 2) administrator dominated planning, 3) early successful action to defuse skepticism, 4) using themes as opposed to a specific mission to guide course of action, 5) allow the process and content to evolve, most likely creating or adapting new themes, 6) move toward shared planning. The authors' survey data corroborated their findings.

Involved persons at all levels need to realize that shared power usually results in an expansion of power as opposed to a gain/loss situation. Evolutionary planning is best, with a cross-role group of people. Communication, drawing conclusions from data for successive actions, and taking initiative are key skills. Creative thinking and collaboration are key skills in developing a shared vision. Individuals' wills are often a factor to be overcome in developing visions since many are afraid of the unknown and doubt their ability to lead. Resources are essential, and some individuals with the needed power and resources may need to be persuaded that the school needs those resources to change. An important skill is that of the "garage sale junkie" in finding resources and programs that will fit the school from whatever sources are available. Coping strategies are central; passivity and denial rarely work. Those coping strategies that delve deeply into the problem are needed, and the capacities to cope need to be increased. Case study methods are located in the appendices.

Louis, K. S., & Smith, B. (1992). Cultivating teacher engagement: Breaking the iron law of social class. In F. M. Newmann (Ed.), *Student engagement and achievement in American secondary schools* (pp. 119-152). New York: Teachers College Press.

Many reformers have attributed the problems of student learning to poorly prepared teachers, but evidence suggest that an equally if not more serious problems is an increasing level of teacher detachment and alienation from their work and students. (Corcoran, Walker & White, 1988, Metz 1990) Portraits of unengaged teachers have appeared in the reform literature (see, for example, Powell, Farrar & Cohen, 1985). Because teachers' work and student work are inextricably intertwined, teacher alienation is a primary stumbling block to improving student engagement. From the student's point of view, teacher engagement is a prerequisite for student engagement. From the teacher's point of view, student engagement is critical to teacher(pp.120). In this sense, teacher engagement is a critical step in the process of creating schools that increase student learning opportunities and improve student achievement (Bryk and Thurm, et al. 1989). From 1987 to 1990, the authors conducted research in eight public, nonselective schools actively involved in efforts to improve working conditions for teachers. A diverse sample of community environments was deliberately chosen. One school was in a predominantly affluent community; three schools, one suburban, one rural, and one urban-were in mixed socio-economic communities of middle-class status overall, and four served communities where over half of the student body came from disadvantaged homes, including students from poor, minority, and immigrant families In these latter schools, between 55 and 65 percent of the students were considered disadvantaged. The chapter includes a detailed explanation of types of teacher engagement and its relationship to student engagement and social class is presented (pp.120-121), an overview of the study which including four general factors that explain levels of teacher engagement, and how the schools promoted different aspects of teacher engagement.

Louis, K. S., & Kruse, S. D. (1995). *Professionalism and community: Perspectives on reforming urban schools* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

The authors begin with the assumption that what teachers do outside of their classroom may be critical to school restructuring and may profoundly affect their classroom work. *Professional community* is how they term this other aspect of teachers work. The authors cite several researchers in their definition: "In a school characterized as a community, three key features operate . . .: A common set of activities that provides many occasions for face-to-face interactions, and the potential for common understandings, values, and expectations for behavior to evolve: Specific organizational structures that promote this, such as time and expectations that people will gather and talk small, stable networks of teachers, etc. A core of shared values about what students should learn, about how faculty and students should behave, and about the shared aims to maintain and promote the community. Central to a school community is an ethic of interpersonal caring that permeates the life of teachers, students, and administrators" (pp. 16). The three-year study was developed from three themes: " (a) understanding the nature and development of professional communities within restructuring schools; (b) examining the degree to which restructuring creates different power bases and political environments within schools; and (c) examining whether restructuring schools have the potential to become *self-designing* or *learning* organizations" (pp. 17-18). This book focuses on the first theme. Six schools (two of each level) were selected. Data included teacher interviews, other key personnel and related externals' interviews, classroom observations, and meeting observations. Researchers chose to follow the research strategy pursued by Louis and Miles (1990). The researchers propose a framework for analyzing school-based professional community that includes the potential benefits, the characteristics, the supportive structural conditions, and the supportive social and human resources. The text then presents the case studies first individually, and then comparatively using Miles and Huberman's (1994) recommended procedures for cross-case analysis. The authors conclude that" a shared normative and value base paired with reflective dialogue produce the most essential foundational support for professional community" (pp.206). Also, time, teacher empowerment/school autonomy, cognitive and skill bases, and supportive leadership are necessary but not sufficient to create strong mature professional communities. Appendices include a draft outline of the longitudinal case studies, an outline of the elements of a professional community, data from case studies, and three other frameworks for studying communities.

Louis, K. S., Kruse, S., & Marks, H. (1996). Schoolwide professional community. In F. Newmann & Associates (Eds.), *Authentic achievement: Restructuring schools for intellectual quality* (pp. 179-203). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The author argues that researchers and reformers should not only pay attention to ways to improve individual teacher's instruction but also address ways to build collegial resources aimed at developing professional communities. The author identifies five elements critical to school professional community: shared norms and values, focus on student learning, reflective dialogue, deprivatization of practice and collaboration. The study examined the extent to which professional community promoted authentic pedagogy and found that in schools where professional community is strong, pedagogy tends to be more authentic and where professional community is weak pedagogy also tends to be weak. The author noted that schools with the most vital professional communities had two prominent features in common: teacher's dedication to inquiry and innovation, and supportive leadership. Specifically there needs to be a climate of professional inquiry, risk taking, and leadership is redistributed in the across the school. In addition, the author notes that a reduction in school size and organizational structure is positively associated with professional community.

Louis, K. S., Marks, H. M., & Kruse, S. (1996). Teachers' professional community in restructuring schools. *American Educational Research Journal, 33* (4), 757-798.

Professional community among teachers, the subject of a number of recent major studies, is regarded as an ingredient

that may contribute to the improvement of schools. The research reported in this article is grounded in the assumption that how teachers interact with each other outside of their classrooms may be critical to the effects of restructuring on students. The research is based on data from surveys of more than 900 teachers in 24 nationally selected restructuring elementary, middle, and high schools. The analysis focuses on the type of professional community that occurs within a school and investigates both the organizational factors that facilitate its development and its consequences for teachers' sense of responsibility for student learning. The findings suggest that wide variation in professional community exists between schools, much of which is attributable to both structural features and human resources characteristics, as well as school level. Implications for current school reform efforts are discussed.

Louis, K. S., Kruse, S., & Marks, H. (1996). Schoolwide professional community in authentic achievement: Restructuring schools for intellectual quality. In F. Newmann & Associates (Eds.), *Authentic Achievement: Restructuring schools for intellectual quality* (pp. 179-203). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Individual teachers and peers in classrooms influence children's learning each day, but the extent to which many adults cooperate over the school years in education the child ultimately determines whether he or she makes the greatest possible progress in the journey toward adulthood. The authors suggest that cooperation alone does not guarantee an adult's success in building intellectual capacity in children, however. Nevertheless, community among adults, when focused on professional responsibility and the central tasks of education, can reinforce and augment the talent, knowledge and insight that individual teachers bring to their work. While well-designed school restructuring efforts may stimulated teachers enthusiasm and satisfaction in their work, without professional community, most individual teachers will find it difficult to sustain the level of energy needed to reflect continual on and improve their practice for the benefit of authentic student achievement.

The authors identify five elements that appear critical to school professional community: 1) shared norms and values; 2) a focus on student learning; 3) reflective dialogue; 4) deprivatization of practice; and 5)collaboration. To examine the extent to which professional community promoted authentic pedagogy, the authors used survey data collected from teachers to construct an index of professional community and compared professional community for each school with its rank on authentic pedagogy. By looking closely at the nature of teacher's work in the schools more successful with authentic pedagogy, the authors noticed the importance not simply of individual practice within classrooms but the ways teachers connect to and work with colleagues throughout the school. The authors identified this positive work setting as school professional community. Using case study data from diverse schools, the authors explained how the five elements of professional community supported authentic pedagogy by reinforcing and emphasis on the intellectual quality of student learning, by offering teacher technical help with the innovations such pedagogy requires and by strengthening social support that sustains teachers commitment with this difficult work. Teachers in the profiled schools were enthusiastic about their work, found satisfaction in teaching, and believed they were making a difference in their classrooms. They typically reported that elements of school professional communities helped them to improve their teaching.

Finally, the authors describe how professional community is supported through an interaction of cultural and structural characteristics. Critical cultural conditions included a climate of professional inquiry, taking the risks of innovation, and leadership focused on participation, intellectual stimulation and conflict management. Key structural conditions included reduced school size and organizational complexity, school autonomy and shared power relationships, time for teacher planning and sustained investments in teacher professional development.

Louis, K. S., & Leithwood, K. (1998). From organizational learning to professional learning communities. In K. Leithwood & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Organizational learning in schools* (pp. 386-401): unpublished.

The intent of this book is to fill gaps left by the increasing popularity of the concept among educational scholars and practitioners, and the relatively limited empirical research in school settings. The emphasis relies largely on action: images of organizational learning embedded in school context, interventions for enhancing organizational learning processes, the outcomes of such process and the relationship between organizational learning and the process of school improvement. By focusing on the unique contexts of school organizations the chapters provide evidence about how concepts of organizational learning apply to public educational settings. Although previous literature concerning organizational learning processes describes extensively both what it is in real organizations and what it ought to be under ideal conditions, there are few sources of defensible advice about strategies to actually enhance it. The book describes a large number of strategies, four of which are given chapter length attention including systematic evidence of their effects. The authors, as did Weick and Westley (1996), argue that the disequilibria introduced by organizational learning must be balanced by features of the school organization that support equilibrium: productive organizational learning, the kind that pays off for students, occurs when school members consistently take collective responsibility for student learning; collective responsibility depends on the school organization having stable community-like characteristics especially for the staff; the conditions which foster organizational learning overlap in significant degree with the conditions that create a sense of community among staff members; an image or vision of schools as professional learning communities holds considerable promise as a response to the challenges facing education now and in the near future. Strong school-based professional communities do not ensure stable positive organizational culture, but they may promote it through five critical elements (Kruse, Louis and Bryk, 1995): shared norms and values, focus on student learning, deprivatization of practice, collaboration, and reflective dialogue. The intersection between organizational learning and professional

community requires further study. Empirical investigations of the relationship between organizational learning and professional community are, at this juncture, very limited, and assertions of causality may be misplaced (pg 397). Yet, there is reason to argue that certain conditions in the school seem to be associated both with the development of cohesive and trusting relationships among teachers in schools, stable professional community, and also with active efforts to engage with new ideas in ways that challenge current practice team and organizational learning. The authors are drawn to the conclusion that the apparent tension between stability and change, between community and learning is a positive dynamic.

Louis, K. S., & Leithwood, K. (Eds.). (1998). *Organizational Learning in Schools* : unpublished.

Leithwood and Louis suggest there is a strong logical case for greater attention to individual and collective learning in schools experiencing turbulent times. However, they suggest that three problems exist which this book is explicitly designed to address. The first is the context problem, meaning that virtually none of the substantial literature about the nature, causes, and consequences keeps organizational learning in mind. This work addresses the context problem by describing what organizational learning looks like in the many case schools that appear in the thirteen chapters. The second problem from the authors' views is the evidence problem- compelling empirical support for the claim that increases in such learning will contribute to organizational effectiveness or productivity is embarrassingly slim (pp.10). They note, as do Wieck and Westley (1996, pp.440), that there appear to be more reviews of organizational learning than there is substance to review. To warrant the sort of sustained and intensive attention to organization redesign required to significantly enhance the individual and collective learning of school professionals, a more substantive body of evidence concerning the outcomes that can be expected is needed. Thus, eight chapters of thirteen provide some original data about some aspect of the nature, causes, and consequences of organizational learning in schools. The third problem, Leithwood and Louis suggest exists, is one that coexist with the evidence problem--that is the strategies problem. The critical nature of the evidence problem notwithstanding, action to enhance organizational learning cannot wait until the empirical case for its effects is fully made (pp.11). The world of practice just does not stand still and wait for such evidence to appear. The development of well-tested strategies is urgently needed if real progress is to be made in fostering organizational learning in schools and other types of organizations. The chapters in Part II of *Organizational Learning in Schools* each describe a different strategy for enhancing organizational learning and offers systematic evidence concerning the strategy's impact.

Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (1996). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices* . (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

This textbook for educational administration combines solid theory and research knowledge with practical applications to help enhance the abilities of administrators to be effective leaders. The book is divided into four parts, the first of which provides a basis in administrative theory including information on classic theories, organizational structure, and culture. The second part examines basic administrative processes with chapters on motivation, leadership, decision-making, communication, and organizational change. The third part looks at the structure of education, including federal and state roles, local school districts, school finance, and legal issues. The final section attends to the administration of programs and services. Chapters include curriculum development and implementation, analyzing and improving teaching, personnel administration, and careers in educational administration.

Mabey, C., & Iles, PP. (Eds.). (1994). *Managing learning* . London: Routledge.

This edited volume contains 23 chapters by various authors and experts on the subjects of organizational change, collective learning, assessing and developing new competencies, facilitating life-long learning, developing team effectiveness and managing diversity. Senge, Kolb, Kanter are among the authors in this edition.

MacBeath, J., Moos, L., & Riley, K. (1996). Leadership in a changing world. In K. Leithwood, J. Chapman, D. Carson, PP. Hallinger, & A. Hart (Eds.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 223-250). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

The authors examine the context of change at national, local and school levels and its impact on school leadership in Denmark, England, and Scotland. The first part of the article explores the global context for change coupled with the relationship between schools and the labor market. Cultural differences towards schools and school governance were revealed in a comparison of legislation and structures among the three countries. The empirical evidence comes from their study of thirty headmasters from the three countries. In-depth interviews of the leaders approaches to managing the school, and their competencies and attitudes relevant to effective leadership were coupled with detailed logs of how the leaders spent their time each day. Headmasters identified one essential skill as the ability to manage the Board (a parent advisory/supervisory group). Variations existed in the people to whom headmasters gave their time: Danes tended to spend more time with teachers though not in their classrooms, while Scots spent more time with pupils usually in classrooms, and the English divided their time with teachers, pupils, parents, and outside agencies. The English had the most fragmented day as viewed by the participating headmasters. Overall, there was a high degree of congruence between a headmaster's beliefs and where that individual spent his or her time.

The authors conclude that "leadership for a new order" requires flexibility and pragmatism, a notion of leadership as a shared, interactive activity, a union of technical skills with human elements. A leader must have a repertoire of management skills as one method may not work in every situation. The leader must function at the center of the group as opposed to being at a removed higher hierarchical level. The authors also warn of "a potential disjuncture between the interactive participative forms of leadership and the demands of the stringent financial management and the 'market mission'. "(pp. 246). Leadership's effectiveness will ultimately be evident in its ability to prepare generally change-shy teachers for a change-full future.

Malen, B. (Ed.). (1991). *The politics of curriculum testing* . London New York: Falmer Press.

Includes bibliographies and index. The politics of curriculum and testing: introduction and overview / Betty Malen and Susan H. Fuhrman -- Reforming the curriculum: will empowerment policies replace control? / Andrew C. Porter, Doug A. Archbald, and Alexander K. Tyree, Jr. -- State policies and state role in curriculum / Rolf K. Blank and Diane Schilder -- The interplay between state and district guidelines for curriculum reform in elementary schools / Denise Cantlon, Sharon Rushcamp, and Donald Freeman -- Graduation vs. education: reform effect for at-risk youth / Janice H. Patterson -- Revolution in one classroom / David K. Cohen -- Educational policy in a situation of uncertainty; or, how to put eggs indifferent baskets / William H. Clune -- Trends in testing in the USA / Eva L. Baker and Regie Stites - -Readiness testing in local school districts: an analysis of backdoor policies / Lorrie A. Shepard -- Educational accountability reforms: performance information and political power / James G. Cibulka -- The politics of Australian curriculum: the third coming of a national curriculum agency in a neo-pluralist state / R.J.S. Macpherson -- Nations at risk' and national curriculum': ideology and identity / Ivor F. Goodson -- Systemic school reform / Marshall S. Smith and Jennifer O'Day.

Malen, B. (1995). The micropolitics of education: Mapping the multiple dimensions of power relations in school polities. In J. D. Scribner & D. H. Layton (Eds.), *The study of educational politics* (pp. 147-168) Washington D.C.: Falmer Press.

Micropolitics is generally viewed as a new field of study. Since its conceptual boundaries and distinctive features are elusive and contested, this chapter adopts a working rather than a consensus definition of the field. Micro political perspectives address the overt and covert processes through which individuals and groups in an organization's immediate environment acquire and exercise power to promote and protect their interests (Ball, 1987; Blase, 1991; Hoyle, 1986). They emphasize the public and private transactions through which authorities and partisans manage conflicts and meld consensus about the distribution of scarce but prized material and symbolic resources.

Scholars of sociology and politics of education have long recognized that schools are mini-political systems, nested in multi-level governmental structures, charged with salient public service responsibilities and dependent on diverse constituencies (pp. 148). Confronted with complex, competing demands, chronic resource shortages, unclear technologies, uncertain supports and value-laden issues, schools face difficult, divisive allocation choices. As in any polity, actors in schools manage the inherent conflict and make the distributional decisions through processes that pivot on power exercised in various ways and in various arenas. These processes are amenable to political analyses, but they have received limited examination, in part because "politics" has been seen as an "unprofessional" activity to be avoided, not an inevitable force to be addressed (Viteritti, 1986). Simply put, the politics of schools has received more attention than the politics in schools.

The author makes three general observations of current research on the micro politics of schools. First, it is a disparate field. Its conceptual boundaries and distinctive features await definition and require the need for conceptual clarification and frameworks to guide research and ground understandings. Second, if one accepts the cardinal assumption that politics is in large measure about the acquisition and exercise of power in a polity, then one challenge confronting the field is the fortification of a research base for whatever face of power is the focus of the study. Much of the research reviewed by the author concentrates on the first face and examines how power is manifest in influence (or non-influence) on decisions. Researchers capacity to account for the dynamics is constrained by a lack of longitudinal and comparative data as well as by the limited attention to connections between political process and education outcomes. Third, if power is a key component of politics, then attending to the relationship between the 3 faces of power constitutes another challenge. One way to view the relationship is to see the faces as complimentary. To illustrate, the first face concentrates on overt political action in decision arenas, on how power is activated and exercised. The second and third faces becomes the subtle precursors of political action such as how political orientations are formed, political efficacy is acquired, power resources are accumulated public issues are defined and how broad structures as well as actor strategies converge to regulate the flow of influence. Taken together the 3 faces give a fuller understanding of political processes. Recognizing that there are other ways to attend to the multidimensional nature of power, the point to be made is that diverse efforts to map power relations in schools are important steps. These efforts might yield a more comprehensive, cohesive account of politics if the faces of power were integrated more effectively.

March, J. G. (1991). Exploration and exploitation in organizational learning. *Organization Science, 2* (1), 71-87.

This paper develops a mathematical model analyzing the relationship between the exploration of new possibilities and the

exploitation of current or old certainties in organizational learning. Typically, scarce organization resources must be allocated to these 2; not enough attention to either one may impede organization success and effectiveness. The author discusses the learning of individual members of the organization. As individuals become socialized into the norms and beliefs of the organization, the organization collectively learns through the influence of individuals. Rapid learning by individuals decreases the opportunity for the collective to be influenced and accordingly learn. A heterogeneous group of slow and fast learners may be most desirable. Personnel turnover at a high level decreases the organization learning, but too slow of turnover does not allow for enough new ideas. The decline in learning form turbulence in the external environment can be moderated by a moderate level of staff turnover. Increases in learning showed improved competitive advantage, especially when the numbers of competitors is large.

Marks, H. M., & Louis, K. S. (1997). Does teacher empowerment affect the classroom? The implications of teacher empowerment for instructional practice and student academic performance. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 19* (3), 245-275.

Findings from recent research about the relationship of teacher empowerment to other school reform objectives of interest, such as classroom practices or student academic performance, are mixed. This study investigates teacher empowerment in schools that have at least four years of experience with some form of decentralized or school-based management. Based on the assumption that participation in school decision-making can enhance teachers' commitment, expertise, and, ultimately, student achievement, we hypothesize a positive relationship between empowerment and student performance through the linkages of school organization for instruction and pedagogical quality. The data the authors use to examine empowerment are drawn from a sample of twenty-four restructuring elementary, middle, and high schools—eight schools at each grade level. Most of the schools are urban, representing sixteen states and twenty-two school districts. Data sources include teacher surveys, ratings of pedagogical quality, assessments of student academic performance, and case studies based on interviews and observations; the primary method of analysis is hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). The results suggest: 1) Overall, empowerment appears to be an important but not sufficient condition of obtaining real changes in teachers' ways of working and their instructional practices; 2) The effects of empowerment on classroom practice vary depending on the domain in which teacher influence is focused; 3) Teacher empowerment affects pedagogical quality and student academic performance indirectly through school organization for instruction."

Massell, D., Kirst, M., & Hoppe, M. (1997). *Persistence and change: Standards-based systemic reform in nine states.* (CPRE Policy Briefs RB-21.). Philadelphia: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

This CPRE research focuses on the persistence and transformation of standards-based systemic reforms in nine states (CA, CN, FL, GA, KY, MN, NJ, SC, TX) and twenty-five districts in those states. Information came from in-depth interviews with policy makers and educators. Overall, progress was slow, steady and incremental, with reform advocates having some strong voices and those fearing government interventions having strong oppositional voices. Some cases took more than 5 years to reach consensus on the structure and content of standards documents. Generally, progress was made by politically balancing new goals with the "old basics." State assessments programs were coming into alignment with new standards gradually, though frequently by combining with more norm-referenced tests, tests viewed by the mainstream as more objective. Some progress was made towards increasing the capacity of educators thorough professional development, but frequently this area was first in line for budget cuts and still needs considerable attention. Attention to equitable education issues was generally weak, with more evidence of exempting special need students from high standards than helping them reach the standards.

Matthews, J. (1998). Implications for collaborative educator preparation and development: A sample instructional approach. In D. J. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 155-171). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

The author states that both with the growing interest in collaborative methods and with the increasing evidence that collaborative efforts improve students', that school staff needs collaborative skills. At pre-service and in- service levels collaborative problem solving, conflict management, group dynamics, and communication skills are necessary, therefore, should be available through universities and staff development. The author describes a program at the University of Utah as an example or model of such a program.

McCaleb, S. PP. (1994). *Building communities of learners: A collaboration among teachers, students, families, and community* . New York: St. Martin's Press.

The central question of the book is "How can educators create a partnership with parents and young students that will nurture literacy and facilitate participation in the schools while celebrating and validating the home culture and family and community concerns and aspirations?" (pX) Teachers struggling to meet the needs of all students need to develop their classroom as a community of learners, as well as viewing themselves as co-investigators in this learning community. Teachers also need to validate each student's cultural and linguistic heritage as the basis for developing literacy, and achieve collaborative relationships with the family and community as valuable contributors. The author views teachers as *transformative intellectuals,* who need time to reflect, plan, collaborate, and learn about the students'

community. Teachers also need the power to shape the curriculum to make it relevant and meaningful for the students. Background is drawn from the perspectives of multicultural education, bilingual education, whole language, and cooperative learning, and feminist pedagogy. The book focuses on family education and parental involvement during the period of early literacy development, emphasizing those in multicultural and multilingual environments. The major tenets of transformative education are 1) Teaching and learning occur in a socio-historical context, (2) Education takes place within the context of a community (3), Teaching begins with student knowledge, (4) Skills and voices develop out of a need to know and act, (5) Teaching and learning are both individual and collaborative processes, (6) teaching and learning are transformative processes. The text includes a specific classroom level activity that fosters transformative education through family-student-teacher book writing process. A participatory research study on this process is included. Also, the author describes some exemplary non-classroom programs and projects that are building communities of learners.

McCollum, H. (1995). Managing academic learning environments. In M. S. Knapp (Ed.), *Teaching for meaning in high-poverty classrooms* (pp. 11-32). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author explores the relationship between the learning environment of the classroom and the academic focus, based on observations of 40 classrooms over the course of 1 year. The learning environments were classified as 1) dysfunctional, meaning little evidence of a systematic sustained attempt at order, capricious system of cues for punishment, 2) adequate, meaning teachers had order, but at the expense of meaningful learning, the students were passive and unfocused; 3) orderly restrictive environments, a tight management was clearly in place, but left little room for spontaneity, 4) orderly enabling environments, with students on task and clearly enjoying being and learning teachers eager to learn more instructional strategies. In these 4 classroom types teachers varied certain management strategies that affected the focus on learning. "Teachers varied their ways of 1) dealing with disruptions, 2) ensuring consistency of routines, 3) providing student feedback and holding students accountable, 4) motivating students, and 5) pacing instruction. Teachers 6) struck different degrees of balance between student and teacher talk, and 7) developed different degrees of responsibility among students for their own learning" (pp. 18). The author states that "management of the academic learning environment and the nature of what is taught or how it is taught are inextricably linked" (pp.29). She concludes that a more orderly enabling environment will more likely use academic considerations to guide and control what is taught and how.

McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (1990). The contexts in question: The secondary school workplace. In M. W. McLaughlin & N. B. J. E. Talbert (Eds.), *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* (pp. 1-14). New York: Teachers College Press.
The authors trace general research trends beginning with research treating effective teaching as a combination of individual characteristics, such as disposition, knowledge, beliefs, and the settings of teachers' learning and teaching. Research on the workplace in secondary schools goes from the narrow view of the department to the broader school and policy system and community culture contexts. A social constructionist view on teachers' work and workplace is critical to understanding contextual forces on teaching. The authors view secondary school contexts as differing from elementary school settings because of the strength of subject area departments in secondary schools. They see the teachers' viewpoint as a neglected perspective in research, and so use that bottom-up focus in this book. They view various contexts of teaching as embedded in one another, but conditions of each context permeate and work in concert on shaping teachers' conception of their work, expectations for students, motivation and efforts, and sense of accomplishment. The authors designate these contexts as the subject area/department, the structure and culture of the school, the policy system in the school sector, the community social class culture, and the educational value system of society, the profession and the community.

McLaughlin, M. W., Talbert, J. E., & Bascia, N. (Eds.). (1990). *The contexts of teaching in secondary schools: Teachers' realities* . New York: Teachers College Press.

The chapters in this text represent a collaborative effort and new dialogues among researchers from diverse lines of research. An initial planning seminar gave rise to the various topics and strands pursued in the chapters. They seek to illuminate the secondary school teacher's as a workplace permeated by multiple contexts as opposed to being nested in a series of contexts. Chapters are grouped according to those dealing with sociocultural contexts, organizational and policy contexts, and analyses of change in embedded teaching contexts.

McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (1993). *Contexts that matter for teaching and learning: Strategic opportunities for meeting the nation's educational goals* . Washington D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

"The national education goals express a systemic approach to reform which fosters coherence in the disparate elements of the education system. This report highlights the findings of research conducted by the Center for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching (CRC) in California and Michigan during the years 1987- 1992 and the implications for policy strategies to achieve the national education goals. The major sections of the report are: 1) contexts that matter for teaching and learning: (2) professional communities as mediating contexts of teaching; (3) strategic opportunities for action: meeting the national education goals; and (4) integrating educational reform strategies.

A central conclusion of CRC"s research is that teachers' groups, professional communities variously defined, offer the most effective unit of intervention and reform; it is within the context of a professional community that teachers can consider the meaning of the education goals in terms of their classrooms, students, and content area. Related to this conclusion is the conviction that meeting the education goals requires a reframing of the policy debate to address simultaneously the interdependent, core needs of improved content, student supports, and sustained learning opportunities for teachers. An appendix provides information on the CRC research strategy and data-based and a description of its field a sample of diverse and embedded secondary school contexts (school, district, sector, metro area, and state contexts). A list of CRC books, articles, and reports is included at the end of this report."

Professional communities were measured as varying on their boundaries and inclusiveness, their strength and their cultures. Authors conclude "strong professional communities enable teachers to adapt to today's students if they are embedded in systemic reform contexts, but otherwise they promote consensus on traditional standards for teaching practices and overall professional commitment" (pp. 14).

McLaughlin, M. W., & Oberman, I. (1996). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. In M. W. McLaughlin & I. Oberman (Eds.), *Teacher learning: New policies, new practices* (pp. 202-219). New York: Teachers College Press.

The vision of practice underlying the nations reform agenda requires most teachers to reconceptualize their practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations about student outcomes, and to teach in ways that they have never taught before and probably have never experienced (Nelson & Hammerman, 1995) The success of this agenda turns ultimately on teachers' success in accomplishing the serious and difficult tasks of learning the skills and perspectives assumed by new visions of practice and often, unlearning practices and professional lives. Yet few occasions and supports for such professional development exist in teachers' environments. Because teaching for understanding relies on teachers' abilities to see complex subject matter from the perspectives of diverse students, The know-how necessary to accomplish this vision of practice cannot be prepackaged or conveyed by means of traditional, top-down, teacher training strategies. The policy problem for professional development in this reform era extends beyond mere support for teacher's acquisition of new skills or knowledge to providing occasions for teachers to reflect critically on their practice and fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy and learners (Nelson &Hammerman, 1995; Prawat, 1992).

The authors look at new institutional forms that support teachers professional growth in ways consistent with conceptions of teaching and learning for understanding., ways in which existing arrangements can be rethought or redesigned to support reformers' visions of practice and teachers' professional growth, and considers aspects of the larger education policy context that foster or impede teachers incentives, and ability to acquire new knowledge, skills and conceptions of practice.

McLaughlin, M. W., & Oberman, I. (Eds.). (1996). *Teacher learning: New policies, new practices* . New York: Teachers College Press.

Introduction. Teacher learning: new policies, new practices / Milbrey W. McLaughlin and Ida Oberman. New perspectives on practice. Reconceptualizing teaching: moving toward the creation of intellectual communities of students,
teachers, and teacher educators, Barbara Scott Nelson and James K. Hammerman, Teaching the way children learn, Beverly Falk, Constructivism and school reform / Martin G. Brooks and Jacqueline Grennon Brooks, A new lens on traditional roles. Of regularities and reform: navigating the subject-specific territory of high schools, Pamela Grossman, Improving classroom practice: ways experienced teachers change after supervising student teachers, Edith S. Tatel, Assessment as a heuristic for professional practice, Kate Jamentz, New structures for learning and change. Networks for educational change: powerful and problematic, Ann Lieberman and Milbrey W. McLaughlin, Rethinking restructuring: building habits of effective inquiry, Margaret Szabo, Communities for teacher research: fringe or forefront?, Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Susan L. Lytle, New roles for traditional structures. The role of teachers' organizations: reflections on educational policy trust agreements, Charles Taylor Kerchner, Text and context for professional development of new bilingual teachers, Stephanie Dalton and Ellen Moir, Preparing teachers for multicultural, inner-city classrooms: grinding new lenses, Kip Téllez and Myrna D. Cohen -- Problem-based learning: a promising approach to professional development, Edwin Bridges and Philip Hallinger, School-university partnership : getting broader, getting deeper, Lynne Miller and Cynthia O'Shea, An emergent paradigm for practice and policy. Practices that support teacher development: transforming conceptions of professional learning, Ann Lieberman, Policies that support professional development in an era of reform, Linda Darling-Hammond and Milbrey W. McLaughlin.

McNeil, L. M. (1988a). Contradictions of control, part 1: Administrators and teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan, 69* , 333-339.

The author argues that what schools teach is the result of the tension between the goal of educating students and the goal of controlling and processing students. The author links the goal of controlling students to the historical development of routinization in industries. From classroom observations, she suggests that schools organized to control students (such as behavior) and process them to award each a diploma reduce educational quality by encouraging flattened content,

ritualistic teaching, and disengaged students. Focus on standards and testing adds to the focus on minimal compliance, furthering a downward cycle. Policies and structures that focus on educational goals result in engaged students, teachers working together on curriculum, and increased success. A "good school" defined as one that produces good scores and many graduates are in opposition to one that educates its students to think critically. The author describes two schools as examples of the negative effects of administrative controls.

McNeil, L. M. (1988b). Contradictions of control, part 2: Teachers, students, and curriculum. *Phi Delta Kappan, 69* (6), 432-438.

This article continues the author's argument that American high schools are dealing with a contradiction of goals: one to educate students to participate in our democracy through their ability to think, reason, and make judgments, and two to award credentials to large numbers of students. Schools are viewed by some as industries with raw materials, products, assembly workers, and managers. The author views mechanistic teaching, flattened content, a minimal efforts as symptoms of organizational dynamics. Observed teachers "taught *defensively* , controlling the knowledge in order to control the students" (pp. 434) and eliciting only minimal compliance form students. "Defensive teaching strategies" included fragmenting information, mystifying concepts, omitting concepts, and simplifying material, all in the name of control. The author notes a parallel between administrators' attempts at teacher control/compliance and teachers' attempts at student control/compliance, resulting in minimal achievement by all despite vast levels of ability and knowledge.

McNeil, L. M. (1988c). Contradictions of control, part 3: Contradictions of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan, 69* (7), 478-485.

The author extends her discussion of the conflicted situation of schools vis a vis school reform. Administrative structures and policies promote control of students in the same way industries have sought to control and dominate workers. Teachers are controlled with administrative policies, which in turn create classrooms that treat their students as they are treated. This article describes a school system that was free from these oppressive constraints and therefore embodied the highest educational goals and standards for students. These magnet schools of a large urban city succeeded in involving teachers in curriculum planning, and having interested and engaged students. The state and school district then implemented school reforms including proficiency-based curricula and teacher assessments. The model schools were unable to continue teaching in the same way and still meet the new requirements. The frustration of new reforms diminishing the quality of teaching led to many of the most skilled teachers leaving the district and/or profession. The author concludes that reforms involving standardized education are routes to poorer quality schools.

Means, B., Chelemer, C., & Knapp, M. (Eds.). (1991). *Teaching advanced skills to at-risk students: Views from research and practice* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The first chapter is an introduction comparing compensatory education with an educational system like that described in the remaining chapters. Common themes in the chapters are a new attitude toward at-risk students focusing on their strengths instead of their weaknesses; shaping curriculum around complex meaningful problems; and using instructional strategies that utilize teachers as coaches applying powerful thinking strategies. Chapter 2 looks at disadvantaged children as mathematical thinker in an experimental mathematics curriculum. Chapter 3 describes another mathematics program, Cognitively Guided Instruction, which increases teachers' understanding of the way children think about math. Chapter 4 describes reciprocal teaching, a way to foster strategies of reading comprehension that has succeeded with disadvantaged children. The chapter uses examples from experiences with limited-English-proficient students. Chapter 5 explores advanced writing skills through epistemic writing, comparing this research-based model to the process writing approach. Chapter 6 argues for a fundamental reorientation of the whole school, not just in individual classrooms. This chapter describes two programs focused on comprehension and composition skills of critical literacy. Chapter 7 describes a cognitive apprenticeship approach, drawing on the experiences of one middle and one secondary school. Chapter 8 attends to the changes the models presented throughout the text imply for the role of teachers and teacher preparation and support.

Mevarech, Z. (1995). Teacher's path on the way to and from the professional development forum. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 151-170). New York: Teachers College Press.

The authors address the conditions under which professional development programs have the effect of temporarily stripping away teachers self-perceptions of expertise and efficacy and give rise to ways of thinking and acting that are common to novice teachers. The authors suggest that this an unavoidable dimension in a "U-curve Model" of professional growth and conceptual change (based on research by Dwyer, Rignstaff, and Guskey, 1989, Hall, Louchs, Rutherford and Newlove, 1975), which is a five stage (continuous) model of survival; exploration and bridging; adaptation, conceptual change and invention. The authors define appropriate support strategies to assist teachers at the various stages and suggest that the U-curve model may have important implications for teachers, practitioners and educational psychologists who expect a linear growth of professional development; do not expect temporary negative outcomes or do not know that the process is slow, gradual and difficult to achieve.

Meyer, A. D. (1982). Adapting to environmental jolts. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 27* , 515-537.

Examines the reactions of three San Francisco (California) hospitals to the 1975 doctors' strike. Analyzes the anticipatory, responsive, and readjustment phases of the hospitals' adaptations in terms of each hospital's previous market strategy, organizational structure and ideology, and deployment of slack resources, including financial, human, technological, and administrative resources.

Miles, M. B. (1990). Limited success. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why*. (pp. 148-168). New York: Teachers College Press.

This chapter details case studies of an urban high school involved in an unsuccessful effective schools programs. Multiple visits were conducted over one year, with a follow up visit two years later. This chapter includes the internal and external environment of each school, the elements and goals of the change program, its implementation, preliminary results, and status two years later. The initiatives were supported by capable, dedicated people, in a mostly top-down fashion, in a climate of blaming and powerlessness. Multiple elements competed for attention of the school and district, with little support and poor implementation, continuing a cycle of discouragement and cynicism.

Miles, M. B., & Farrar, E. (1990). Struggling and improving. In K. S. Louis & M. B. Miles (Eds.), *Improving the urban High School: What works and why* (pp. 98-147). New York: Teachers College Press.

The details of the case studies of two semi-successful urban schools (one high school, one middle school) involved in effective schools programs. Multiple visits were conducted over one year, with a follow up visit two years later. This chapter includes the internal and external environment of each school, the elements and goals of the change program, its implementation, preliminary results, and status two years later. Though neither of these schools were as successful as the previous two studied, they shared the presence of an empowered group, overload of work, and good coordination. Both schools seemed to need more focus on changing teacher behavior and on ensuring longevity of change effects. Similar to the two successful schools of Chapter 4, one school was more program focused, one with a more dynamic leader than the other, one with a more gradual emphasis, and one with a more polarized staff. The less successful schools seem to be less fully implemented versions of successful schools.

Miller, B., Lord, B., & Dorney, J. (1994). *Staff development for teachers: A study of configurations and costs in four districts* . Newton, MA: Education Development Center.

This study focused on the professional development costs of four districts, chosen to maximize variety in terms of geographic location, size, and programs. Five schools within each district were selected varying on elementary, middle and secondary level. K-12 teachers were the focus, excluding special education teachers and funds, vocational education, early childhood education, and guidance and resource specialists. Data, collected during the 1991-1992 school year, included site interviews with district and school staff, surveys of school and district staff, and telephone interviews with a sub-sample of the surveyed teachers, and documents providing information on budgets, staff development calendars, programs, job descriptions, and reports. They used and cited Moore and Hyde's (1981) definition of staff development work as follows: "any state-, district-, or independently-sponsored activity that is intended partly or primarily to prepare teachers for improved performance in present or future roles in their schools, districts, or professional communities" (pp. 3 of Summary Report). Findings--Staff development programs tended to be a loose collection of discrete activities developed in district offices and occasionally in individual school buildings. At the school level, organization and administration of staff development seemed a factor of individual discretion with less administrative direction. Outside staff development resources seemed related to whether districts viewed staff development solely as an internal activity or viewed external sources as a means to extend resources. Overall, staff development was fragmented and lacked an overall or strategic vision. Policies and mandates were typically conflicting and seen as added upon each other, leaving teachers in the position of disentangling and reconciling conflicting messages. Decentralized measures were frequently a result of budget cuts rather than a philosophical commitment to greater teacher involvement. The nature of staff development varied, but most were limited in frequency, rarely sustained over long periods of time, and not an integral and ongoing part of the teachers' lives. Teachers generally favored full-day release for professional development, as opposed to after school, or partial school days, because of concerns of attention after a teaching day and the time to prepare for substitute teachers. Teacher involvement improved the teachers' perceptions of staff development quality importance. Collegial projects were viewed as important, but were manifested in many different ways. Teachers viewed staff development's purpose as keeping them up to date with the larger field of education. Some also cited community building as a purpose. Effectiveness lays in "how conflicting purposes were managed and how much teacher passivity was assumed" (pp. 12, Summary Report). Costs varied from 1.8% to 2.8% of the operating budget for the four school districts. The figures do not result from a comprehensive fiscal survey, however, and cannot be broadly generalized. The authors suggest "New Directions" for professional development, including: seeing teachers as learners; attending to teachers' questions, needs and concerns as opposed to what others perceive as needs; development of collegiality and collaboration among teachers; a view of professional development as a long-term investment; and attention to professional development infrastructures as professional communities develop and expand.

Mohrman, A., Jr., Mohrman, S., Ledford, G., Jr., Cummings, T., Lawler, E. E., III, & Associates (Eds.). (1989). *Large scale organizational change* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Over the last ten years, researchers and consultants who work with organizational change have observed the scale of changes in increase from single programs in parts of organizations to transformations that encompass entire organizations, and in some cases, environment. This book is a hybrid of previous works which tend to address either descriptions of particular approaches that essentially ask the reader to adapt the approach, and those which leave readers to pick and choose and arrive at their own conclusions regarding the disparate methods and approaches. This volume, and the various authors, begin with disparate views of large-scale change and integrate them in a way that enhances the separate contributions, moving closer to a deeper understanding of the multidimensional aspects of large-scale change. The book is divided into three parts. Part one focuses on the organization and its environment and specifically considers the environment as a source of change. Part tow moves from the broader context of large-scale change to the fundamental issue of people. Part three focused on strategies and methods for achieving sustainable change.

Moingeon, B., & Edmondson, A. (Eds.). (1996). *Organizational learning and competitive advantage* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

This text attempts to bring together technical theory of management with behavioral views that show implementation problems such that a larger meta-theory of organizations and effectiveness is possible. Towards that end, the authors of the chapters in this book represent both backgrounds and viewpoints. The first part of the book looks at organizational learning processes and tacit knowledge as possible sources of competitive advantage. The second part details the resource-based view of organizations--a review of definitions and terms, a study of information technologies, and formal economic argument for learning as a source of profit. The final section of the book focuses on implementing new strategies--an intervention to enhance organizational learning, an exploration of a process view of restructuring organizations, and strategies using cognitive processes to help clients. The overall view is that organizational learning should be viewed with an interdisciplinary lens and that organizational learning can provide a competitive advantage to firms.

Monk, B. J. (1993). *Toward quality in education: The leader's odyssey* . Washington D.C.: US Department of Education Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Programs for the Improvement of Practice.

This is an example of education borrowing from management literature and theories in implementing a new strategy.

Moore, D. R., & Hyde, A. A. (1981). *Making sense of staff development: An analysis of staff development programs and their costs in three urban school districts.* Chicago: Designs for Change.

"This research study analyzes teacher staff development programs and their costs in three large urban school districts. Activities of the school districts studied were classified as staff development if intended to prepare teachers for improved performance, and all costs of these activities were considered staff development costs, even if they were part of the school district's "regular" budget.

"The school districts studied were selected through a survey of school districts serving the 75 largest U.S. cities, and they were chosen because they were respectively high, medium, and low in their apparent level of staff development activity. Because the literature contains little research and analysis concerning the realities of staff development practice, the study was designed to provide a basic overview of these realities and was intended to suggest directions for subsequent research and for policy analysis.

"The study revealed patterns of staff development activity and resource allocation that contradicted conventional wisdom about how staff development is conducted. In all three districts, the actual costs of staff development were fifty times more than most school district staffs estimated. These significant costs resulted partly from the "hidden cost" of teacher and administrator time for staff development activity--time that was seen by school district staff as part of the school district's regular budget. Another factor obscuring the extent of staff development activity was that responsibility for staff development in each district was dispersed among a large number of people and departments. Middle level managers controlled largely autonomous activities, and few attempts were made to coordinate staff development among these diverse actors. Frequently staff development leaders were unaware of the activities of their colleagues, even when these activities placed demands of time and energy on the same teachers. In general, offices designated to coordinate staff development played a minor role in this swirl of activity.

"Staff development activities in each district had accumulated over time, often in response to other factors (federal funding opportunities, fund cutbacks, organizational politics, teacher contract negotiations, etc.). Thus, the nature of staff development activity in each district was not primarily the result of conscious policy, although marked differences in practice were apparent across the three districts. One major difference was the extent to which school-based staff development was encouraged (as opposed to staff development entirely controlled by central office administrators). The report analyzes factors that encourage or discourage such school-based activity.

"Another marked difference was in the use of four monetary incentives for teachers to participate in staff development: substitute release time, stipends, sabbaticals, and salary increases for completing educational courses and workshops. One district relied heavily on salary increases for educational coursework. Another relied heavily on stipends to encourage teacher participation. In particular schools, a high level of participation in staff development occurred during salaried work time. The report analyzes the reasons for and implications of various monetary schemes to support staff development.

After reviewing patterns identified in the three school districts, the report discusses resulting research and policy implications. One major conclusion is that the weak political position of staff development and the organizational dynamics of school districts make substantial reforms of actual staff development practice unlikely in the near future" (pp.4-5).

Morgan, G. (1997). *Images of organization* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
Metaphor is inherently paradoxical and can create powerful insights into the structure and management of organizations. In reorganizing theory as metaphor, Morgan suggests that one can quickly appreciate that no single theory will ever provide a perfect or all-purpose point of view of organizations. The challenge is to become skilled in the art of using metaphor to find fresh ways of seeing, understanding and shaping the situations we want to organize and manage. The chapters in Morgan's book illustrate how this can be done by exploring the implications of different metaphors for thinking about the nature of organizations. Some of the metaphors tap familiar ways of thinking other illuminate perspectives that may be rather new. Collectively, they demonstrate how metaphor can be used to generate a range of complementary and competing insights and build on the strengths of different points of view. Content in the various chapters explores: the image of organizations as machines, organisms, brains, cultures, interests, as instruments of domination. Final chapters show how one can use and integrate these insights and the broader implications for managing in a turbulent world.

Muncey, M. S., & McQuillan, PP. J. (1996). *Reform and resistance in schools and classrooms: An ethnographic view of the Coalition of Essential Schools* . New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Muncey and McQuillan take the first comprehensive look at Coalition schools and chart the course of reform of eight charter member schools. A longitudinal ethnographic study conducted over the course of five years. The researchers looked at curricular and pedagogical developments; how changes affected individual students, teachers, administrators and other school personnel, and how American cultural beliefs influenced efforts to change. The study points to the differing reform experiences of the schools including how in some cases efforts were successful and sustained when others stalled, changes divided some faculties while others found a sense of shared purpose, and how principals in some schools facilitated change while others clearly inhibited it. Although Coalition reform efforts looked quite different when examined at the classroom and school levels, some findings were shared across both levels of analysis.

Nadler, D. A., Gerstein, M. S., Shaw, R. B., & Associates. (1992). *Organizational architecture: Designs for changing organizations* . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

These chapters treat major aspects of changing organizations in the 1990s. The first chapter discusses major forces for change, and describes the concept of architecture as a metaphor for an organization. The second chapter discusses an open-systems based framework for thinking of organizations as made up of four components: work, people, formal organization and informal organization. Part 2 of this text is made up of chapters discussing various formal organizational arrangements: acquisitions, joint ventures, and high-performance work systems. Part 3 of this text looks at the informal arrangements. Changing the informal organization is discussed in chapters on implementing Total Quality Management, increasing organizational members' capacity to act and take risks, and teaching organizations how to learn. The fourth section of the book deals with senior management: staffing, teamwork, and collaborative strategy planning. In the final section, the authors draw conclusions as to effective strategies and productive trends for this century.

National Center for History in the Schools. (1996). *National Standards for History* . Los Angeles: National Center for History in the Schools.

These standards result from the efforts of teachers, historians, parents, citizens, civic and public interest groups, chief state school representatives, state social studies specialists, and national organizational representatives. The standards assume that students need a comprehensive understanding of the world and its many cultures and civilizations, in part to contribute to a mutual patience and respect. The standards recognize the development of future citizens as well as developing individual's sense of self-identity and place in the world. The standards aim to develop historical thinking skills and to develop historical understandings, recognizing that each develops in conjunction with the other. The standards define outcomes, not curricular design, and are to be used as teachers deem appropriate.

National Center for Research on Teacher Education. (1991). *Final Report: National Center for Research on Teacher*

Education . East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.

This report is a summary of the findings of a carefully planned collection of studies on teacher preparation programs. The Center's objective was to examine how formal teacher education impacts teachers' knowledge, skills and dispositions. To this aim, the Center focused on two subject areas, mathematics and writing, utilized longitudinal studies of teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions to show change over time, and included a variety of approaches and alternatives in teacher education to get at different methods people use for the same goal of teacher preparation. Preservice programs, first-year teaching programs, and in-service programs were all included in the study. There also was a deliberate attempt to vary on models of knowledge, program coherence, and the relationship between pedagogy and subject matter. A variety of data collection instruments were used, and the timeline varied with the type of program. Major findings: majoring in a subject in college does not guarantee that those teachers are better prepared to teach that subject than other teachers; particular educational experiences in college do make a difference in a teacher's preparation; courses that describe different cultures do not improve teachers' abilities to teach diverse students; the simply availability of mentors does not guarantee a better beginning teaching experience; successful mentoring experiences include 1) release time for mentors, 2) assistance, support and training for mentors, and 3) mentors direct their assistance to purposes of teaching and academic content rather than only discipline and classroom management issues; alternative certification programs produced some grads similar to traditional programs and some grads that were weaker; preservice programs differ widely in structure and in the populations they attract; the content and character of the preservice programs is more likely to affect its success than the structure of the program.

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. (1996). *What matters most: Teaching and America's future* . New York: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.

This work was funded by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, and aimed to provide an action agenda to meet the educational challenges that America faces. Members and contributors were drawn from a side variety of business, community organization, educational researchers and organizations, and educators, and parents. This proposal is marked with national statistics of the status of education, schools, and teachers, as well as many inspirational, emotional anecdotes and vignettes from parents, students, teachers and administrators sharing their views and experiences. This work stresses the need for our schools to compete worldwide. It also expects schools to play a large role in forging shared values, understanding of and respect for other perspectives, ability to take risks and persevere, and continual learning throughout one's lifetime. Poor and inadequate education is linked to increased prison populations, increased poverty, and increased juvenile delinquency. Teachers must focus on teaching for understanding as opposed to only "covering" the material. They must be able to teach a more diverse student population and teach them at a higher level of mastery. Accreditation, licensing and certification are seen as a three-legged stool of teacher quality. The Executive Summary is a good summary of the commission's premises and recommendations.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. (1987). *National council for accreditation of teacher education standards, procedures, and policies for the accreditation of professional development units* . Washington D.C.: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

This document describes NCATE's mission, authority, governance structure, and the background of the development of the standards for teacher education institutions. The accreditation policies and procedures are explained. The last section lists the five categories with their respective standards. Each standard lists its "criteria for compliance." The categories are Knowledge Bases for Professional Education, Relationship to the World of Practice, Students, Faculty, and Governance and Resources.

The National Foundation for Improvement of Education. (1996). *Teachers take charge of their learning: Transforming professional development for student success* . Washington D.C.: The National Foundation for Improvement of Education.

This report challenges principals and other school administrators working with teachers and existing resources, to create workplaces that support teachers' ongoing professional development. It challenges educators and communities to find a way to measure accurately what resources are devoted to professional development and to ensure that sufficient resources are available and well spent. The report also challenges teacher community leaders to create time for teacher's learning and partnerships with community institutions that will nurture teacher's growth and student success.

The report provides data/research findings which: 1) identifies teacher responses to surveys on motivation for participating in professional development activities, and 2) characterizations of teachers most profound professional growth experiences. In addition, the report defines parameters, characteristics and criteria for "high quality professional development that incorporates the following: has the goal of improving student learning at the heart of every school endeavor; helps teachers and other school staff meet the future needs of students who learn in different ways and come from diverse background; provides adequate time for inquiry, reflection and mentoring and is an important part of the normal work day is rigorous, sustained and adequate to the long-term change in practice; is directed toward teachers intellectual development and leadership; fosters a deepening of subject-matter knowledge, a greater understanding of learning and a greater appreciation for student needs; is designed and directed by teachers and incorporates the best

principles of adult learning and involves shared decisions designed to improve the school; balances individual priorities with school and district needs and advances the profession as a whole; makes best use of new technologies; and is site-based and supportive of a clearly articulated vision for students.

In summary, the report provides a series of 4 very detailed and multifaceted recommendations to facilitate improvement in and create conditions for effective teacher learning. They are 1) Find the time to build professional development into the life of schools, 2) Help teachers assume responsibility for their own professional development, 3) Find common ground and work with the community to provide high quality professional development as well as higher education for teachers.

National Institute on Educational Governance, F., Policymaking, and Management, & Consortium for Policy Research in Education. (1998). *Policy brief: What the third international mathematics and science study means for systemic school improvement* . Washington D.C.: authors.

This brief summarizes the discussions at the TIMSS policy forum on October 6-7, 1997 and includes information from various papers and reports of TIMSS' researchers. The TIMSS study examined student performance in 41 nations at 3 grade levels (4th, 8th, 12th) looking at how well US students perform by comparison and analyzing curriculum and teaching practices to discern why our students rate as they do. Key points of the policy brief from the Executive Summary: "We need to make dramatic improvements in student achievement, especially in middle schools and high schools" (pp. vii). "The U.S. math and science curriculum lacks rigor, focus, and coherence" (pp. vii). "U.S. teachers demand less high-level thought of their math students than teachers in Germany and Japan" (pp. vii). "Unlike in Japan, in the United States education reformers try to change teaching through indirect means, rather than by focusing on improving the quality of classroom lessons" (pp. viii). "All levels of government have important roles in systemic school improvement" (pp. viii). " New approaches to curriculum reform are needed" (pp. ix). " TIMSS can be a tool for professional development" (pp. ix). "TIMSS can help rally public support for school improvement" (pp. ix). "Most TIMSS countries have reached a national consensus about standards for curriculum and instruction" (pp. ix). "TIMSS offers a productive way of comparing the U.S. education system with those of other countries" (pp. x). "A global economy demands international benchmarks" (pp. x). Overall, US students compare favorably at the lower grades while losing ground, as they get older. The report emphasizes that we should not simply adopt another country's practices, but adapt and tailor others' good ideas to our own culture and education system. Specifically, the direct focus on teaching practices (as opposed to indirect interventions) and the emphasis on high-level skills at higher grades need to be addressed. Also, our country seems to continue to focus on breadth of coverage rather than depth, apparently to the detriment of our students' achievement on these tests.

Natriello, G., & Dornbusch, S. (1983). Bringing behavior back in: The effects of student characteristics and behavior on the classroom behavior of teachers. *American Education Research Journal, 20* (1), 29-43.

The authors developed two studies designed to investigate the effects of student characteristics on teacher reports of their classroom behavior. Consistent with earlier studies of differences in teacher behavior associated with differences in student characteristics, these studies also examined the effects of student behavior, represented by hypothetical classroom problems presented to teachers. The author's analysis suggests that teacher behavior is affected more by immediate student behavior than by student characteristics. Further, those characteristics more relevant to student performance in school, student achievement records and social behavior record, have a greater impact on teacher behavior than student characteristics that are less relevant to student performance, such as sex and ethnicity.

In contrast with studies which portray teachers as indulging their prejudices, the authors studies indicate that teachers behave rationally in their interactions with students with different characteristics as they use available information to formulate appropriate responses to students in classrooms. In the authors view, this needs to be emphasized in view of previous studies portraying teacher behavior as significantly influenced by student characteristics.

Nelson, B. S., & Sassi, A. M. (1998). *Cultivating administrators' professional judgment in support of mathematics education reform: The case of teacher supervision. Education Development Center.* Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, San Diego.
The authors worked with a group of administrators in the Mathematics for Tomorrow project for 3 years. These administrators requested a yearlong seminar on teacher supervision developed partially to help develop a sense of what to pay attention to when observing reformed/reforming math classrooms. These administrators viewed a 14- minute video segment of a reformed mathematics classroom at the beginning of the year, and again at the end. This study compares the changes over time in the administrators' views, utilizing philosophy and social sciences' construct of practical judgment and reasoning. The authors use the cliché "the eye sees what the mind knows" to explain how the administrators' views changed as their knowledge changed. Views changed in 4 areas: 1) what counted as mathematical knowledge; 2) how mathematics is learned; 3) the nature of student engagement; 4) the nature of teaching. The authors conclude that as long as administrators have supervisory duties, administrators need to learn to pay attention to and appreciate elements of reformed classrooms in order to encourage and not hinder such practices.

New American Schools. (1998). *Great schools by design: 1996-1997 annual report* . Arlington, VA: New American Schools.

Over 700 schools in 26 states are now using NAS designs. These designs were developed and tested from 1991 through 1995. They are now "scaling up" to more schools, with the goal of 30% of the schools in their eleven partner districts using NAS designs by the year 2000. They feel they are on target to meet this goal. Student achievement is already on the rise in those districts already using NAS designs and national recognition for the need for comprehensive school change is growing, notably with $150 million in fiscal 1998 appropriations for the "Comprehensive School Reform Initiative." The report then gives examples of what the successfully improving schools look like from the eyes of various participants and stakeholders: teachers, students, principals, parents, superintendents, policymakers, and school board members. Selected data from sample NAS schools are included showing increasing student achievement.

New American Schools. (1998). *Blueprints for school success: A guide to New American Schools designs* . Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.

The purpose of this guide is to introduce the New American Schools designs and to briefly outline the steps for schools and school districts to go through to adopt NAS designs. The eight designs represent a variety of philosophies and styles, though all are comprehensive in their focus. All aim to increase student achievement, high standards for all, and high-quality professional development. The designs offer a framework that schools can use to integrate and focus the various activities and programs happening in a school to make the overall reform comprehensive. It includes indications of the cost requirements of the various designs and outlines the possible ways schools and districts can meet these requirements; most schools have the needed resources in their buildings already and just have to reallocate them. Each design is described, including how learning is measured, the professional development involved, the role of technology, and the research evidence supporting the program.

The New American Schools Development Corporation. (1995). *Bringing success to scale: Sharing the vision of New American Schools* : New American Schools.

This paper provides background information, history and project phases of the New American Schools Program (NAS). It includes information on the criteria used for identifying promising partners for scale-up, the list of school communities selected to participate in the scale up of the New American Schools Design Phase, and descriptions of the NAS school designs. Elements encompassed in the NAS strategy for scale up aimed at building and sustaining capacity within districts and states to support high quality schools. Other partners in the effort and their roles in the NAS effort, including the Education Commission of the States, and the RAND Corporation, are described. Lessons learned to date in terms of the nature of support and assistance schools require, the system-level investment needed, and institutionalized Community support as a critical component, are discussed in the paper.

Newmann, F. M., & Wehlage, G. G. (1995). *Successful school restructuring: A report to the public and educators* . Madison, WI: Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System.

Since the late 1980s, education reformers in the United States have emphasized, "restructuring" of schools. This book synthesizes 5 years of research conducted by the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools (CORS). From 1990 to 1995, the center analyzed data from the following sources: 1) the School Restructuring Study (SRS), an examination of 24 significantly restructured schools; 2) the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88), a nationally representative sample of over 10,000 students from grades 8 through 12; 3) the Study of Chicago School Reform, an analysis of survey data from 8,000 teachers and principals in 400 elementary and 40 high schools from 1990-94; and 4) the Longitudinal Study of School Restructuring, 4-year case studies of 8 schools. A conclusion is that the recent education reform movement gives too much attention to changes in school organization that do not directly address the quality of student learning. Student learning can meet high standards if educators and the public give students three kinds of support; teachers who practice authentic pedagogy, schools that strengthen professional community, and supportive external agencies and parents. The following structural conditions can enhance the professional community needed to promote learning of high intellectual quality--shared governance, independent work structures, staff development, deregulation, small school size, and parent involvement. Seven figures and 5 boxes are included. The appendix contains the Center's mission and lists members of its staff and national advisory panel. (Contains 30 references.)

Newmann, F. M., King, M. B., & Rigdon, M. (1997). Accountability and school performance: Implications from restructuring schools. *Harvard Educational Review, 67* (1), 41-69.

The theory that strong external accountability improves school performance fails to recognize the importance of internal accountability and insufficient efforts to develop organizational capacity. A study of 24 restructuring schools found that schools with strong external accountability tended to have low capacity; strong internal accountability reinforced capacity.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory; with assistance from the Education Commission of the States. (1998).

Catalog of school reform models . Washington D.C.: US Department of Education.

This catalog provides information on 44 models of school improvement. This list is not intended to be used as the list a school can choose from for the Obey-Porter law. That law mentions 17 that are intended as examples only. The introduction discusses the many aspects of a reform model a school should consider to see which one would best meet its needs. The introduction states that not all of these models have data supporting their success, due to various factors. This distinguishes this list from the Kentucky Department of Education's *Results Based Practices Showcase 1997-98*. The text provides certain information on each program: origin/scope, general description, results, implementation, costs, student populations, and any special considerations. Contact information and cites for more information are also provided. Under funding for the Comprehensive School Reform Demonstration program (CSRD), school reform programs must contain nine components. These components may be in a collection of activities. To aid in a school's planning, however, this catalog provides a matrix showing which whole-school models satisfy which components. These were shown to the developers of the models, though they may or may not have agreed with the estimations.

O'Connor, M. C. (1998). Can we trace the "efficacy of social constructivism"? In PP. D. Pearson & A Iran-Nejad (Eds.), *Review of Research in Education* (Vol. 23, pp. 25-72). Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

The author sets out a loose typology of the major theoretical threads associated with "social construction." These threads are then viewed in the specific areas of the teaching of K-12 writing and the teaching of K-12 mathematics. The author concludes that a measure or judgment of the efficacy of social construction is not yet possible.

Typology: The first thread is clustered around the idea that the collective constructs the reality or beliefs for the individuals. Individual beliefs are acknowledged and seen as interacting with the collective, but the "focus is on the collective's beliefs and actions within a reality that the collective constructs through its individuals members beliefs and actions" (pp. 33). Included in this thread is the work on social construction of reality (Berger and Luckmann), sociologists of science and knowledge (Bloor, J.S. Mill), ethno-methodological studies (Sacks & Schegloff, Lynch, Goffman), and reproduction of the social order through education (Apple, Freire, Giroux). The second cluster begins from Piagetian Constructivism, that each person constructs his own knowledge and only can acquire knowledge through his own construction. This cluster focuses on how the individual learns, relegating the collective to the learning environment or context. The social environment is of interest both as a source of motivation for the learner and as a generator of what has to be learned socially. The third cluster is based upon the sociocultural-historical view most associated with Vygotsky. In this view, the dynamic interaction of the individual and the collective is central to a study of learning.

The author suggests that these three clusters of social constructivism have no relationship to the current interest in social contexts of learning and knowledge. Further, the phenomenon of teaching and learning has proven too complex such that none of these clusters has been used in a theory-drives-research-drives-practice format. In a brief survey of research on the writing process, the author shows that most research stems form classroom experiences in social practices while connecting to theories as they help confirm explanations. Similarly, research in the area of mathematics emphasizes social aspects of teaching and learning but relates these experiences to theories after-the-fact, as they are useful. Overall, researchers seem to turn to social aspects of learning, for many reasons, only some of which relate to social constructivist theories, making it difficult to link these theories to any possible contribution they may have. Generally, though not exclusively, research tends to use the theories as tools rather than a framework or basis from which to work. Perhaps, more than a linear relationship between theory, research, practice, a mutual, reciprocal relationship "among researchers, theorists and practitioners" (pp. 65) exists, all striving for better understanding of teaching and learning

Office of Educational Research and Improvement, & US Department of Education. (1998). High performance learning communities: A new vision for American schools. *The Policy Forum, 1* (2), 1-3.

Learning communities is a distinctly different model of learning from the earlier models of transmission of knowledge or discovery of knowledge. It focuses on the social nature of learning, assuming that knowledge is distributed among members. Learning communities expect members to be active and responsible participants in the process of learning. Participants should be working in their "zone of proximal development" (pp.1), which is a level above their individual capabilities, but attainable as a collective. Classrooms are transformed to a more active, collaborative place organized for collective learning. Expanded to the larger field of education, learning communities are workplaces where teachers and administrators support each other's learning. Rather than "chains of authority," "chains of assistance" are the rule (pp. 3). This involves a rethinking of views of the definition of knowledge, student and teacher roles, the structure of learning activities, roles of administration, and student assessment. "This kind of fundamental change requires extensive learning and behavioral change throughout the education system" (pp.3).

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62* (3), 307-332.

The author's premise is that "attention to the beliefs of teachers and teacher candidates can inform educational practice in ways that prevailing research agendas have not and cannot." (PP. 329). Problems have come from poor

conceptualizations and differing understandings of beliefs and belief systems. Some of the author's commonalities of beliefs research are that knowledge and beliefs are "inextricably intertwined" (pp. 325). Beliefs are used to interpret and adapt one's surroundings. Some beliefs are more deeply embedded than others, but all tend to be connected in a type of network. Measurements of beliefs should include "belief statements, intentionality to behave in a predisposed manner, and behavior related to the belief in question" (pp. 315). Inconsistencies found from this data may be further explored through open-ended interviews or responses to dilemmas or vignettes. Researchers need to be clear on the meaning and conceptualization of beliefs and think in terms of connections among beliefs. Belief change when new information raises an anomaly. Change can only occur, however, if the individual recognizes the anomaly, believes that the information should be reconciled with current beliefs, and want to reduce inconsistencies among beliefs but is unable to do so through assimilation.

Peterson, J. M. (1989). Remediation is no remedy. *Educational Leadership, 46* (6), 24-25.

A study of all 7th grade students in three Utah school districts was undertaken to compare the effects of different math programs on similar students over 1 year. This article reports only on the effects on the remedial students. One group of students studied the 6th grade mechanical skills they had not yet mastered. One group studied the 7th grade curriculum, but moved at a slower pace. The third group was placed in a pre-algebra program for accelerated students. The third group showed significantly more improvement than the other two, whereas some students in the first two groups lagged even further behind the "regular" students at the end of the year.

Phillips, M. (1997). What makes schools effective? A comparison of the relationships of communitarian climate and academic climate to mathematics achievement and attendance during middle school. *American Educational Research Journal, 34* (4), 633-662.

The article compares two theories of schooling. In one, academic press, student achievement is directly related to "high expectations for student achievement, clear achievement oriented goals, the amount of time spent on instruction, and the amount of homework assigned to students" (pp. 634). The second, communitarian theory, proposes higher student achievement is linked to shared values, democratic governance, and positive teacher-student relationships. The longitudinal data comes from three cohorts of students (n> 5600) from twenty-three middle schools of a suburban county in the eastern U.S.. African American students constitute 70% of the sample. The author first looked at if these dimensions belonged to the appropriate meta-constructs, then examined if communitarian schooling and academic press differed in their effect on mathematics achievement and student attendance. Positive teacher relationships were excluded from the end analysis because it was negatively related to attendance. The correlation of teachers' caring with the other dimensions of community indicated that it did not belong to the same meta-construct. The academic climate is positively related to attendance and mathematics achievement. The communitarian climate is positively related to attendance, though not reliable different from zero. Communitarian climate is negatively related to mathematics achievement. Results, therefore, suggest that those interested in improving student achievement should focus on academic learning rather than communal schooling.

Pierce, K. M., & Gilles, C. J. (Eds.). (1993). *Cycles of meaning: Exploring the potential of talk in learning communities* . Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

This collection of writings comes from a group of reflective teachers and researchers examining the role of communication in communities. The idea of "cycles of meanings" refers to a continual enlarging upon a knowledge base in order to construct new knowledge. A single question, once thought answered, may hold more answers when revisited with new knowledge. Thus, meaning is always cycling. The first part of the book presents theoretical and historical contexts of cycles of meaning, examining the role of talk in establishing and sustaining communities of learners. The second part explores the processes of creating learning communities, including the "how and why" and utilizing talk as a method. The third part details using talk as a classroom strategy to support learners in reading and writing. The fourth section examines evaluating the small group process and how this had affected these teachers' professional development. The final section presents examples of cycles of meaning in the teachers' development. One author, Janice M. Henson, discusses community as "often multi-age; they always reflect varying abilities and skill levels; they are accepting of diversity; and they relish creativity. But most of all, they are places where people communicate with each other" (pp. 38).

Pounder, D. G. (Ed.). (1998). *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* . Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

This text discusses collaboration research and practice from multiple perspectives, and is broadly grouped into three sections: foundations of collaboration, different types of school collaboration, and implications for instruction, leadership, and teacher preparation. Chapters include structural considerations of school collaboration, necessary change processes, organizational economic view of collaboration with social service agencies, a team emphasis in teachers work redesign, a professional socialization view of the collaboration of various types of educators, implications for instruction, implications for school leadership, and implications for teacher education programs.

Pounder, D. G. (1998). Promises and pitfalls of school collaboration: Synthesizing dilemmas. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 173-180). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Pounder summarizes the text by naming five issues present in the chapters: "1) the need for change toward more collaborative schools versus the persistence of schools, 2) resource gains versus costs of collaboration, 3) professional interdependence versus professional autonomy or discretion and the related concepts of independence, privacy, and isolation, 4) shared influence or leadership versus shared accountability or responsibility, and 5) balance of influence versus over control or under involvement among collaborative parties" (pp. 173-174). The difficulty with collaborative efforts is that all these issues are interacting factors and must be considered in combination. Additionally, the salience of each issue may vary from school to school. This complexity results in no specific formulas for success. The authors recommend two general guidelines, however: 1) the primary goal of this collaborative work should be to enhance the education of students, and 2) all strictures and processes should center on the teaching-learning process.

Pounder, D. G. (1998). Teacher teams: Redesigning teachers' work for collaboration. In D. G. Pounder (Ed.), *Restructuring schools for collaboration: Promises and pitfalls* (pp. 65-88). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Group work design is one lens that can aid in redesigning teacher work to support more collaborative relationships. Interdisciplinary instructional teams (ITTs) hold the greatest promise to change schools as it most closely corresponds to the lessons learned from organizational team research. School advisory groups and special services teams are less promising. The author attends to structural elements, group processes, and the organizational context in presenting her case for use of ITT's to improve schooling. These ITTs are currently found at the middle school level, and the author believes that their use hold more promise in secondary schools than in elementary schools (pp. 83).

Prawat, R. S. (1989). Promoting access to knowledge, strategy & disposition in students: A research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 59* (1), 1-41.

Students' ability to access or utilize their intellectual resources as a function of many factors studied in the research is discussed. Organization and awareness are the two most important factors in students' ability to access knowledge, strategy, or disposition. A synthesis of the research is presented.

Purnell, S. (1996). *Matching schools and designs in the scale-up of New American Schools: Early observations* . Santa Monica, CA: Institute on Education and Training
RAND.

This memorandum is a product of continuing program analyses that RAND is carrying out with support from the New American Schools (NAS). The memorandum reports interim findings, and is intended primarily as feedback summarizing the results of early interviews with principles and jurisdiction staff concerning how their schools learned about the NAS designs and the basis on which they chose one of those designs. The memorandum is intended to help NAS partners to improve the way in which the schools and designs are matched in the future, and does so through a summary of specific "lessons learned." The report suggests that as jurisdictions continue to incorporated these lessons learn, they may well move in the direction of systemic change by providing schools with more relevant information and autonomy while continuing to serve the strategic role of defining the relationship between the design teams and the district as a whole.

Rait, E. (1995). Against the current: Organizational learning in schools. In S. B. Bacharach & B. Mundell (Eds.), *Images of schools: Structures and roles in organizational behavior* (pp. 71-107). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

The author sets out to define organizational learning, describe formal methods of enhancing it, and describe impediments to OL. Though there is no consensus on a definition of OL, discussions revolve around whether it is an increase in the range of possible actions or the actions themselves. Single and double loop learning are relevant. Scholars debate whether new behaviors indicate OL, or if adaptive behaviors can also result. OL involves three variables: "repertoire of individual cognitive strategies available, the organization's informal web of culture and norms, and the organization's formal structure" (pp. 72). Though experience is said to be the best teacher, schools and organizations are too complex for outcomes to be simply matched to efforts. That is, direct reinforcement is harder to achieve, muddled by multiple social networks, competing goals, and unanticipated influences.

We force both complete and incomplete information to fit our knowledge structure, our cognitive categorical filing system. This is a benefit by allowing us to speed up information processing and deal with ambiguity, but also encourages stereotypical thinking and inhibits creative problem solving. This affects an organization's ability to learn, coupled with the culture and norms of the organization, the structure of the organization, and the nature of the external environment.

The author describes models in the literature that help show the difficulties encountered when trying to move toward more double loop than single-loop learning within an organization. It requires risk-taking and a level of openness that may be uncomfortable for those not accustomed to it. The author describes four levels of obstacles to OL in schools. 1) the variety of stakeholders in schools with differing objectives makes for a highly politicized system. 2) The institutionalized structures of schools are inconsistent with the risk-taking, inquiry--based behaviors of OL. 3) The nature of teacher' work makes engaging in OL difficult--the isolation, the time constraints, lack of resources, the uncertainties inherent in the students. 4) The inherently conservative nature of our information processing is a barrier, as previously described. Despite these barriers, OL in schools can be achieved by attending to teachers, as the primary service providers, in encouraging and facilitating collaboration and self-reflection. At the same time, school-wide issues must be attended to in order for OL to occur. These two dimensions (teachers and school-wide issues) constitute reinforcing areas that together can create a multilevel process of building a community of learners. The process must meet with positive consequences to sustain itself. "OL is an appropriate model for school change" (pp. 101) in that it utilizes and affirms school professionals, and it acknowledges the structural, normative and cognitive factors of the school.

Raywid, M. A. (1995). Alternatives and marginal students. In M. C. Wang & M. C. Reynolds (Eds.), *Making a difference for students at risk. Trends and alternatives* (pp. 119-155). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

This chapter outlines the history and definitions of alternative education, looking at varying emphases on school culture, school climate, and organizational and structural features. The author explains three types of alternative school designs. Type I are schools students choose to attend and likely to reflect themes or emphases pertaining to content or instructional strategy or both. Type II is temporary schools to which students are sent as a last chance prior to expulsion. Students perform regular work in a more solitary arena. Type III is generally non-punitive and more compassionate. They focus more on remediation in academic, social, and emotional areas. Type I schools assume students can succeed if the school's program and environment are altered, while Types II and III assume the student is deficient in some area and focus on changing the student. Type I schools tend, therefore, to be more innovative. The author summarizes the research on effectiveness of these three types of programs, especially of Type I. While these Type I programs have had great success, they do not have a positive image, challenge the Effective Schools approach, and threaten the regular school practices. Despite this, many of their practices are being recommended for all schools. Schools emulating features of alternative schools are less successful, probably because many do not involve student choice and are mandated by districts.

Resnik, L. B. (1987). Learning in school and out. *Educational Researcher, 16* (9), 13-20.

From the idea that there is practical knowledge and there is school knowledge, the author explores aspects that distinguish school from daily life: a focus on individual cognition versus shared cognition outside school; purely mental activity versus use of tools outside; reliance on symbols in school versus utilizing the actual context and objects outside school; and a focus on generalizable lessons in school versus situation-specific lessons outside school. Schools do not seem the most appropriate place to do specific job training. The author points out that many on-the-job training programs err in remaining too "school-like" in their methods. Schools are effective, however, in training people to problem-solve and reason when faced with a new situation that cannot be specifically trained for. The author proposes that schools would do well to come closer to more "outside world" methods, while retaining its focus on intellectual work requiring reflection and reasoning. Shared cultural knowledge in the service of a self-governing effective society is a worthy objective for schooling.

Rogoff, B. (1994). Developing understanding of the idea of communities of learners. *Mind, Culture, and Activity, 1* (4), 209-229.

"The idea of a community of learners is based on the premise that learning occurs as people participate in shared endeavors with others, with all playing active but often asymmetrical roles in sociocultural activity. This contrast with models of learning that are based on one-sided notions of learning. In this paper, I develop the distinction between the community of learners and one-sided approaches from the perspective of a theory of learning participation, and use two lines of research to illustrate the transitions in perspective necessary to understand the idea of communities of learners. One line of research examines differing models of teaching and learning employed by caregivers and toddlers from Guatemalan Mayan and middle-class European-American families; the other line of research involves a study of how middle-class parents make a transition from their own schooling background to participate in instruction in a public US elementary school" (pp.209).

In the three models of learning, the author argues that what is learned differs, as well as the relationship of the learner to the information and its use in sociocultural activities. Students learning in a collaborative structure carry out activities connected with the purposes and history of the community, as opposed to connecting learning in idiosyncratic ways or not internalizing understanding and only memorizing facts. The author sees the collaborative approach as more than a "happy medium" of the other two approaches. It is distinctively its own approach. In a learning community, learning is conversational, and all members are active on matter what their status or understanding level. It is not adaptation of piecemeal innovative methods--it is an overall paradigm shift for the workings of the school. Those who have not

experienced this model will struggle in adapting to and/or adopting it, whether they are parents, practitioners, or researchers. In these learning communities, adults are facilitators, the process of learning is stressed, inherent interest in activities is fostered, evaluation of students occurs with the child and through observations, and cooperative learning is throughout the entire program.

Rosenholtz, S. J. (1991). *Teacher's work place: The social organization of schools* . New York: Teachers College Press.

Teacher's Workplace is a study of the teacher's views, varied understandings, and cognition of school life and the behaviors which follow suit. The book focuses on how good schools can be at their best and how bad they can be at their worst--schools where teachers share common goals and schools more like organized anarchies; schools where colleagues help one another and schools of professional isolation; schools where teachers and students learn and grow and schools where most of them stagnate; schools where teachers believe in themselves and schools of contagious uncertainty; and schools where teachers spark enthusiasm and hope and schools where they are in utter despair. To account for these differences between schools and explain the various effects, the authors constructed a research study which combines qualitative and quantitative research on organizational behavior and performance, employs 5 distinct measures of school effectiveness to show how teachers thoughts and actions reflect the school culture in which they are embedded, and examine district level factors, contributing to a more coherent description of how school organization at the district and classroom levels influence instructional practices.

Rowan, B. (1990). Commitment and control: Alternative strategies for the organizational design of schools. In C. B. Cazden (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education* (Vol. 16, pp. 353-389). Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

This paper describes two strategies for the organizational design of schools and demonstrates how these strategies reflect current themes in the school improvement literature. One strategy focuses on the development of a standardized system of input, behavior, and output controls that constrain teachers' methods and content decisions thereby standardizing the quality of instruction. In practice, this includes curriculum alignment, competency testing programs, teacher evaluation programs, and in-services. Overall, research shows few districts that implement this strategy in an all-encompassing way. Those that do achieve improved student test results. Data only partly shows a negative effect on teacher commitment, apparently worst when programs are improperly or inconsistently applied. The second strategy is termed "commitment," and is described as being an emergent approach with still incomplete logic and inadequate evidence. Elements of the commitment approach are involved in teacher participation in decision making, teachers in recognized mentor or lead positions, increased collegiality and collaboration among teachers, and the development of community in schools. The author refers to Bryk and Driscoll's (1988) definition of a school community as having three core features: " a shared value system, a common agenda of activities, and collegial relations among adults coupled with a "diffuse" teacher role" (pp. 378). The available research shows the commitment approach is, like the control approach, inconsistently and partially implemented in schools, and appears to work best when intensively applied. The author suggests further research look to 1) the classroom conditions that make the teaching task more or less complex, 2) the relationship between the natures of the teaching routine vs. complex tasks to school organization design features, 3) relationship between characteristics of school organization, teacher commitment, and classroom outcomes, and 4) how the successful implementation of a design strategy is constrained by several factors when viewed from an open systems perspective.

Salomon, G., & Perkins, D. N. (1998). Individual and social aspects of learning. In PP. D. Pearson & A. Iran-Nejad (Eds.), *Review of Research in Education* (Vol. 23, pp. 1-24). Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

The authors work to clarify the meanings of individual learning and social learning, suggesting synergistic interactions between the two. Social learning has distinctive meanings: 1) "social mediation of individual learning," (pp.3), as in the cases of a teacher instructing a student in mathematics, or a parent correcting a child's language usage; 2) "social mediation as participatory knowledge construction" (pp.4) in which teams or groups jointly construct learning and the results are distributed across all learners; 3) "social mediation by cultural scaffolding" (pp.5) as when a learner is influenced by tools or artifacts (e.g. texts, video) that embody the cultural and social contexts, 4) "the social entity as a learning system" (pp.5) where the collective is learning as opposed to one agent helping another learn. Social and individual learning each need to be considered in their own right, but also viewed as highly interacting. Three relations are important to note: 1) " Individual learning can be less or more socially mediated learning" (pp. 17). For example, a basketball player practicing free throws alone is still influenced by social and cultural factors, but much less than when he is participating in a team practice. Both can be important. 2) "Individuals can participate in the learning of a collective, sometimes with what is learned distributed throughout the collective more than in the mind of any one individual" (pp. 18). A team hiring a new star player acquires his skills and knowledge, though individual players may not acquire the new skills and knowledge. 3) "Individual and social aspects of learning in both senses can interact over time to strengthen one another in what might be called a 'reciprocal spiral relationship' " (pp. 18). An individual student may learn socially from working in a peer group, but then also proceed individually. Her individual learning may then be taken back to the group to push the group learning further--a reciprocal spiral relationship. These relationships may be positive or negative. If learning is social and individual, instruction should be designed to facilitate social and individual

learning, and aid in the development of auto-regulation in regard to both social and individual learning.

Schargel, F. PP. (1994). *Transforming education through total quality management: A practitioner's guide* . Princeton Junction, NJ: Eye On Education.

This is an example of education borrowing from management literature and theories in implementing a new strategy.

Schein, E. H. (1990). *The art of managing human resources* . New York: Oxford University Press.

This text is a collection of conceptual articles dealing with managing human resources, written to meet the needs of practicing managers and human resource specialists. The articles were chosen for their groundbreaking thinking and insights, and are organized around 4 themes. Part 1 looks at organizational effectiveness: Mason Haire presents a systematic theoretical approach to the management of human resources and to manpower planning and deals with the type of research most suited to this problem. Schein writes a chapter on increasing organizational effectiveness through human resource planning and development. The major components of this system should be coordinated and actively managed by line managers and staff specialists as part of the total organizational system in order to be effective. Warren Bennis reviews the topic of effectiveness in a multipurpose complex system, looking at how to be scientific about effectiveness and dynamic open systems. Part 2 treats the management and development of human resources. Richard Beckhard looks at the possibilities in educational institutions and firms collaborating. Schein writes about organizational and professional socialization, pointing out the dangers of nonconformity and over conformity to the individual and the organization and the impact on business schools and organizations. Schein also explores the ethical issues involved in the various groups with which a manager interacts and the extent to which business schools prepare managers for these ethical issues. Marc Gerstein and Heather Reisman discuss a method of selecting managers to meet the strategic needs of the organization, based on the premise that there is no one "universal manager." Leo Moore reports on a survey of 3000 managers regarding their obstacles to effective time management and proposes steps to aid managers in asserting more control over their schedules. Part 3 deals with organizational change, recognizing that the ability to learn and to adapt is "a central criterion of organizational effectiveness" (pp. 4). Richard Beckhard explores change in large systems by describing a model of change planning and five specific intervention strategies that may be required in organization settings. James Kelly looks at management transitions through a survey of newly appointed CEOs, looking at their management style, establishment of priorities and selection of management teams. Yvan Allaire and Mihaela Firsirotu propose a model for implementing radical change in large organizations, changes such as reorientation, turnaround, revitalization and transformation. Part 4 treats organizational and national culture. Schein begins this section by looking at Japanese methods and questioning whether a method embedded in one culture can effectively be translated into anther culture. He suggests that so little is known about culture's relation to management methods that this is a risky assumption. Edwin Nevis looks at China, not to imitate their management, but to use their methods to help illuminate our own methods and gain fresh insights to US problems of low productivity and lack of innovation in the work force. W. Brooke Tunstall uses AT&T's divestiture process to develop a model of managing cultural change, illustrating the complexity and difficulty of adapting culture to changes in large organizations. In an attempt to limit a too casual use of the term "culture," Schein ends this text with a definition and explanation of culture and its dynamic evolutionary nature. His definition: "Organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (pp. 260).

Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The author attempts to clarify the concept of culture and how leadership is entwined with it. He suggests that a study of culture helps to illuminate the dynamics within an organization, and to understand how new technologies influence and are influenced by organizations. Cultural analysis is a necessary element to management. Organizational learning and change cannot be understood without understanding the culture of the organization. The text is organized into six parts. The first part defines and describes organizational culture and relates it to leadership. Culture is created in part by leaders. Generally leaders are those who are in the position to recognize and work toward change when a culture is not working effectively for an organization. Culture is "the accumulated shared learning of a given group, covering behavioral, emotional, and cognitive elements of the group members' total psychological functioning. For shared learning to occur, there must be a history of shared experience, which in turn implies some stability of membership in the group. Given such stability and a shared history, the human need for parsimony, consistency, and meaning will cause the various shared elements to form into patterns that eventually can be called a culture" (pp. 10). A cultural analysis works best if one thinks of culture "as *manifesting* itself at the level of behavior and espoused values, but that the *essence* of culture lies in the set of underlying assumptions that a group shares" (pp. xv). Specific cases are used to illustrate cultural analysis. Part 2 reviews some of the dimensions of culture such as issues of adaptation, internal integration, shared assumptions about reality, truth, time, human nature, and relationships. Part 3 discusses how to decipher a particular culture. This can be looked at as a group analyzing its own culture or someone explaining a group culture for those outside of the organization. Ethical aspects of studying culture are also discussed. Part 4 looks at how leaders create and develop cultures, including using subcultures and embedding new assumptions in the organization's culture. Part 5 looks at cultural change and the role leaders play in managing change. These are differentiated for young, midlife, mature, and declining organizations. Part 6 shifts to the concept of learning--how that impacts culture and leadership, what a

perpetually learning culture would look like, and implications for leaders if they are to become learners. This perpetually learning culture is described as having a proactive human activity, a pragmatic view of reality and truth, a positive view of the nature of humanity, and emphasizes the organization over the environment. Relationships tend to be a mix of individual and group focused, and a mix of authoritative and collegial/participative. A learning culture looks at the near future and has high levels of communication, connectedness, and diversity. Systemic thinking is dominant, and both tasks and relationships are considered important.

Schifter, D., & Fosnot, C. T. (1993). *Reconstructing mathematics education: Stories of teachers meeting the challenge of reform* . New York: Teachers College Press.

This text presents a picture of mathematics teaching reform--at the classroom level. The teachers featured here have participated in a Summer Math for Teachers program at Mount Holyoke College. This program is based on four principles: 1) This approach to learning and teaching mathematics applies to students as well as to teachers and thus has implications for teacher education as well as classroom instruction; 2) if teachers are to teach mathematics for understanding they must become mathematics learners themselves; 3) regular classroom consultation provides support for the continual reflection upon changes introduced in the classroom, emphasizing the learning of teachers in the context of the classroom; and 4) teacher collaboration is essential to reform. Thus, this program provides teachers the experience of learning in the ways they are now being expected to teach. The text uses accounts from actual participants in the classrooms and follows their development in the in-service work. Other chapters provide accounts of the change process once the teachers have returned to their classrooms and are implementing what they have learned. The change process is painful, but the authors hope that this look at others' experiences with the change process will help support others as they go through it.

Schneider, J. M., Verdugo, R. R., Uribe, O., Jr., & Greenberg, N. M. (1993). Statistical quality control and school quality. *Contemporary Education, 64* (2), 84-87.

This paper describes the beginnings of NEA's project on Conditions of Teaching and Learning. It describes the connection to the theoretical basis of Statistical Product Control theory, especially the work of W. Edwards Deming. Though the meaning and measurement of quality and productivity in education are debated, quality is seen as a multi-dimensional concept. The authors tie SPC and effective schools research into one list of 11 educational organizational principles. The 11 education organizational principles are: "1. At the school, a shared understanding about achievable education outcomes. 2. At the school, the belief that all students can achieve under the right conditions. 3. The use and understanding of statistical assessment of students on a daily basis. 4. The level of teacher involvement in the process of choosing teaching materials and resource. 5. The extent to which barriers are sought, identified, and remedied. 6.At the school, the degree to which employees are provided training that would help them in performing their jobs. 7. At the school, the extent to which the program rather than individuals are evaluated. 8. At the school, the amount of two-way, non-threatening communication. 9. The extent to which teamwork is used for solving problems. 10. The degree to which numbers are used constructively, and where mandates and goals are eliminated. 11. The degree to which all groups in the school and the community are involved in improving education" (pp. 86-87). The authors' research shows that these principles are extremely strong predictors of quality student outcomes and that school employees must take on new roles, requiring changes in the school system itself. This report does not include the details of any of their research.

Schneider, J. (1995). KEYS to excellence for your schools. *Linking Education Finance and Performance* (pp. 25-31).

The author summarizes the methodology and findings of a Teaching and Learning study conducted by the NEA. The study was done in two phases: a national random sample survey of NEA members, and a detailed analysis of 6 schools districts (one from each region). NEA plans to repeat the survey in 1996 or 1997. One objective was to "define and test total quality schools" (pp.25). The objective was to identify what organizational factors are vital to student achievement, resulting in a national "yardstick" with which to measure all schools and aid in their improvement. Experts in effective schooling or in productive organization processes and Association personnel were called together as the research team. From reviewing past research they compiled a set of 11 interrelated educational principles basic to quality schools. A set of questions for each principle was developed (total of 35) for the survey (n=1584 K-12 educators) and in-depth school sites. The data showed a set of "KEYS" that positively and significantly correlate with student outcomes: shared understanding of goals, community involvement in decision making, a belief that all students can learn under the right conditions, willingness and efforts toward removing barriers, daily assessments of goals, selection of quality and appropriate materials, on-going staff development, and non-threatening two-way communication between teachers and administrators and district staff. Teacher perceptions of the quality of schools were the most significant predictor of student achievement. Those factors that predict achievement for white students worked equally well for minority students, except that parental and student efforts at removing barriers were more important for minority schools. The relationships all had a "takeoff point" (pp. 29) as opposed to a linear relationship. NEA plans to conduct another survey to update data, develop and distribute a self-assessment for schools based on this information, and support schools with information resources towards the goal of improved schooling.

Scribner, J. D., & Layton, D. H. (Eds.). (1995). *The study of educational politics* . Washington D.C.: Falmer Press.

Includes bibliographies and index. Introduction and overview: Jay D. Scribner and Donald H. Layton, Values: the 'what?' of the politics of education, Robert T. Stout, Marilyn Tallericao, and Kent Paredes Scribner, The politics of education: from political science to interdisciplinary inquiry, Kenneth K. Wong, The crucible of democracy: the local arena, Laurence Iannaccone and Frank W. Lutz, State policymaking and school reform: influences and influentials, Tim L. Mazzoni, Politics of education at the federal level, Gerald E. Sroufe, The international arena: the global village, Frances C. Fowler, Policy analysis and the study of the politics of education, James G. Cibulka, Rational choice theory and the politics of education: promise and limitations, William Lowe Boyd, Robert L. Crowson and Tyll van Geel, The micropolitics of education: mapping the multiple dimensions of power relations in school polities, Betty Malen, Rethinking the public and private spheres: feminist and cultural studies perspectives on the politics of education, Catherine Marshall and Gary L. Anderson, Making the politics of education even more interesting, Richard Townsend and Norman Robinson, Educational politics and policy: and the game goes on, Jay D. Scribner, Pedro Reyes, and Lance D. Fusarelli.

Scribner, J., et al. (1999). Creating professional communities in schools through organizational learning: An evaluation of a school improvement process. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 35* 1), 130-160.

"This article presents an analysis of the potential for school improvement to foster professional community in three rural middle schools through the process of organizational learning. The findings of this two year qualitative case study demonstrate the tensions schools must negotiate between bureaucracy and professional community and suggest that four organizational factors influence the establishment of professional community: principal leadership, organizational history, organizational priorities, and organization of teacher work. The findings suggest that double-loop learning is invaluable to sustain professional community."(pp.1)

The article uses both the professional development and organizational change literature as its analytic framework. Four definitions of organizational learning are provided. The concept of school as community is explored and the focus of the article is on professional community. A definition of professional community from Louis and Marks (1996) is provided. It includes; shared norms and values, focus on student learning, reflective dialogue, deprivatization of practice, and collaboration. The focus of the study is on the development of professional community through a School Improvement Plan process. A case study approach is used. The researchers provide evidence of emerging professional community within leadership teams and school wide faculties. Factors that influenced the establishment of professional communities are identified. These included organizational history, principal leadership, faculties trust in leadership organizational priorities, and organization of teacher work. They authors have five conclusions1) embracing diverse views is a fundamental step in establishing professional communities, 2) conflict occurs at the "confluence of communities within communities"(pp157) 3) building a professional community is hard work, 4) deeply rooted bureaucratic traditions of schools impede the development of professional communities, and 5) leadership style plays a critical role in developing a professional community.

Senge, PP. M. (1990a). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization* . New York: Currency Doubleday.

Senge draws the blueprints for an organization where people expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, when new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured and where people are continually learning how to learn together. The book fuses these features into a coherent body of theory and practice and is divided into 5 sections: Part I addresses how actions/behavior create reality and how that reality can be changed: Part II elaborates on the principles of the learning organization, Part III explains the specific core disciplines associated with the learning organization (Personal Mastery, Mental Models, Shared Vision, and Team Learning), Part IV provides specific examples/applications of the discipline, and Part V addresses continual learning in a turbulent world and the importance of systems theory in addressing detail and dynamic aspects of complexity.

Senge, PP. M. (1990b). The leader's new work: Building learning organizations. *Sloan Management Review, 32* (1), 7-23.

This article is based on the book The Fifth Discipline. Organizations' ability to learn is their true advantage. Learning must be adaptive to internal and external changes, as well as generative (creating new ideas). Leaders of learning organizations will have more subtle, though more important, work than before. Leaders will need to be designers, teachers and stewards of the organization and its members. They will need to build shared vision, bring out and challenge prevailing mental models, and encourage increased systematic ways of thinking. These skill and role changes involve changes in attitudes rooted in systems thinking.

Shaver, J. PP., Davis, O. L., & Helburn, S. W. (1979). The status of social studies education: Impressions from three NSF studies. *Social Education, 43* , 150-159.

Reports on studies which employed three different methodologies to evaluate status and needs of social studies education. Commissioned by the National Science Foundation's Education Directorate in 1976, the studies included a

national survey of administrators and teachers, a review of literature related to trends in social studies, and a case study/field observer investigation of social studies in the schools.

Shipley, J., & Collins, C. (1997). *Going to scale with TQM: The Pinellas county schools' journey toward quality*. Tallahassee, FL: South Eastern Regional Vision For Education (SERVE).

This is an example of education borrowing from management literature and theories in implementing a new strategy.

Short, K. G. (1990). Creating a community of learners. In K. Short & K. Pierce (Eds.), *Talking about books: Creating literate communities* (pp. 33-51). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

The author explores the development of a learning community in classrooms. These communities require a new perspective on learning on the part of the teacher, rather than just trying a new teaching method. A community of learners is formed when learners "1) come to know each other; 2) value what each has to offer; 3) focus on problem solving and inquiry; 4) share responsibility and control; 5) learn through action, reflection, and demonstration; and 6) establish a learning atmosphere that is predictable and yet full of real choices" (pp. 35). The author's descriptions are based on a year's worth of observations and interview data of first, third and sixth graders. Much of the evidence describes the various techniques teachers used to create these communities, as well as the observed effects. The increased interaction among students helped to develop a sense of knowing each other and trusting each other among all the students. This freed students to feel safer in sharing their thoughts and ideas and to feel supported by others in the room. Students learned to value the uniqueness of each person's contributions and to value each person equally. This was facilitated by a variety of experiences in the classroom that utilized different skills, such as expression through music, art, writing, mathematics, movement, speaking, and by having many open-ended tasks. The classrooms were focused upon inquiry rather than control or finding singular correct answers. Consensual decision-making was the rule, building a sense of shared responsibility for the classroom and its environment on the part of the students *alongside* the teacher. The other components of the learning community are based on the idea that the learners are actively engaged in meaningful learning experiences--learning is relevant to the students' lives and assessment is viewed as realistic in their eyes. The classroom structure is characterized by predictable patterns that aid the students in making decisions without being overwhelmed. Materials were accessible to students, rather than just the teacher, and students organized their time within the constraints the teacher provided.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of new reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57* (1), 1-22.

The author builds a foundation for teaching reform on an idea of teaching that emphasizes comprehension and reasoning, transformation and reflection. He believes his emphasis is justified from the way policy and researches have ignored these aspects of teaching in the past. Reforms generally have been centered on the idea of increasing the professionalism of teaching, but this base comes from a belief that there exists a knowledge base for teaching, some "codifiable aggregation of knowledge, skill, understanding, and technology, of ethics and disposition, of collective responsibility—as well as a means for representing and communicating it." (pp. 4). One view of this knowledge base would minimally include content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values. The author does not elaborate on these categories, but instead expands the concepts of sources for this knowledge base. These are 1) the scholarship in the content area including the nature of knowledge in a particular field of study; 2) educational materials and structures that constitute the "terrain" of the classroom and may either facilitate or inhibit teaching efforts; 3) formal educational scholarship including theoretical knowledge, empirical studies of teacher effectiveness, research on learning and development, all of which can be general or content specific; and 4) the wisdom of practice, a little codified body of knowledge that guides the practice of skilled teachers.

The second half of this article describes the processes of pedagogical reasoning and action. The stages of this model are not of a fixed order or length, but teachers should be able to prove their skill in all of these areas. The stages are "Comprehension of purposes, subject matter structures, and ideas within and outside the discipline" (pp. 15); Transformation of the knowledge into a structure to present to students, including the preparation of the materials, the chosen representation of the material, the selection among an instructional repertoire, and the adaptation and tailoring to specific students; Instruction, indicating the typically observed element of teaching; Evaluation and Testing of student understanding and self evaluation of the teacher's performance; Reflection on the teacher and class's performance; and New Comprehensions of purposes subject matter, students, teaching, and one's self.

Standards should ensure these proficiencies without mandating rigid, overly technical recipes for instruction. The author uses the comparison of doctors needing to treat the patient, not just the disease.

Smith, M. S., & O'Day, J. (1991). Systemic school reform. In S. H. Fuhrman & B. Malen (Eds.), *The politics of curriculum and testing* (pp. 233-268). London: Falmer Press.

"This analytic essay draws on research about the effectiveness of current education policies as well as observations about developing policy systems in a number of states. The chapter begins with several observations about policy and school-level success, examines current barriers to school improvement and proposes a design for a systemic state structure that supports school-site efforts to improve classroom instruction and learning. The structure would be based on clear and challenging standards for student learning; policy components would be tied to the standards and reinforce one another in providing guidance to schools and teachers about instruction. Within the structure of coherent state leadership, schools would have the flexibility they need to develop strategies best suited to their students. The systemic school reform strategy combines the "waves" of reform into a long-term improvement effort that puts coherence and direction into state reforms and content into the restructuring movement."

Smylie, M. A., & Conyers, J. G. (1991). Changing conceptions of teaching influence the future of staff development. *Journal of Staff Development, 12* (1), 12-16.

Teachers will require substantial autonomy to make appropriate instructional decisions which include crafting idiosyncratic strategies to achieve classroom, school and district goals. The authors suggest that with the turn of the century, several things appear certain: rapid changes in characteristics, conditions and learning needs of students will continue and knowledge about teaching and learning will continue to develop dramatically; schools will face ongoing pressure for accountability and reform as the U.S. forges its role in the global economy. These conditions create unprecedented demands for the development of teacher's knowledge and skills. With the underlying assumption that current practice is inadequate to meet these demands, the authors proceed to explain that this inadequacy is largely due to prevailing conceptions of teaching that constrain more effective staff development practices. However, the authors suggest that these conceptions are changing and are unveiling new and promising possibilities for staff development. This article traces changes in conceptions of teachers and their work and then outlines the implications of these changes for the future of staff development. Finally, the article describes the experiences of one school district in redefining staff development in the direction of these conceptual changes, and uses this district as a case for illustrating issues others are likely to encounter as they face the future of professional development.

As a more complex and accurate portrayal in the 80's, this is helping to more accurately convey to teachers the demands they will face in the decades to come. Implications and change which the authors foresee in teacher learning include: 1) moving from a deficit based to competency-based approach; 2) from replication to reflection; 3) from learning separately to learning together; and 4) from centralization to decentralization.

Implementation issues, as described by the authors via illustration of a particular district attempting the changes, included new roles, responsibilities and working relationships are required not only for teachers, but also for principles, district administrators, staff developers; the need to reconsider the role of principles in instructional leadership, implications for accountability systems; implications for dealing with the tension between setting common goals, local autonomy and decision making

Smylie, M. A. (1994). Redesigning teachers' work: Connections to the classroom. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education* (Vol. 20, pp. 129-177). Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

This chapter reviews empirical evidence of relationships between teacher work redesign and classroom instruction. The second part then explores theoretical connections between teacher work redesign and change in classroom practice using a conceptual "backward mapping" strategy. The author states that most studies of teacher work redesign focus on describing the program initiatives. The few that focus on outcomes mostly look at attitudinal changes of teachers. Very few actually look at student learning, possibly because it is only thought of as an employment policy, programs haven't been in place long enough, inquiry is stumped by methodological problems, or the theoretical framework is inadequately developed. The existing evidence connecting classroom outcomes and teacher work redesign is equivocal. Some show positive changes, some negative, and some no change. The author concludes that generally positive changes occur in the classrooms of teachers directly involved in the work redesign, and that collective or professionally initiated redesign efforts were more likely to be associated with classroom improvement than bureaucratic initiatives. The weak relationship in education mirrors that found in the literature on job enrichment in business and industry. The breakdown of the logic that work redesign enhances teacher affect and thus leading to improved student performance creates a need to look at other mechanisms that may more clearly explain the observed patterns. Control, motivation, and learning are useful mechanisms to observe teacher work design, and their weaknesses may be due to their inherent incompatibilities with current contexts and cultures of teaching. These must be attended to as a part of the whole system of the school in order to be effective. The author suggests that redesign efforts focus on the students and their learning, and secondly on what that means for teachers. Also, the teachers will need a professional community to support this change, requiring collaborative, coordinated, collective, interdependent work focused on student learning above all. Future studies should address the definition and measurement of classroom outcomes, utilize newer nontraditional research methods (narratives, biographies, and stories), and incorporate multiple complementary methods.

Smylie, M. A. (1995). Teacher learning in the workplace: Implications for school reform. In T. R. G. M. Huberman (Ed.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 92-113). New York: Teachers College Press.

The author suggests that discourse on workplace reform has been virtually uninformed by theories of adult learning and change, and that this literature has been applied infrequently to issues of teacher preservice and in-service education. Its curiously sparse application has pointed to improvements in teacher education programs (Burden, 1990; Carter, 1990, Lanier and Little, 1996, et al). However, few analyses have gone further to suggest how these theories may speak to issues of workplace reform. The author suggests the confluence of theories of adult learning and change in organizations lends strength to existing research on teacher learning and workplace conditions of schools, and integrating these theories, proposes and "optimal" school environment for teacher learning. (Components of the "model" include teacher collaboration, shared power and authority, egalitarianism among teachers, variation, autonomy and choice in teacher's work, integration of work and learning, and accessibility of external resources (pp.104-107).

Smylie, M., Lazarus, V., & Brownlee-Conyers, J. (1996). Instructional outcomes of school-based participative decision making. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 18* (3), 181-198

This study researched the relationship among the variables of participative decision-making, instructional improvement, and student learning. The data was collected in one Mid-western school district, using surveys, observations, and student test scores. The results found an increase in teachers' perceptions of student learning and instructional methods, and variability in student achievement. "The greater the participative nature of decision making, the greater the increase in perceived accountability, the more organizational learning opportunities for teachers, and the greater the decline in perceived individual autonomy. The greater the increases in accountability, the more learning opportunities available, and the greater the decline in individual autonomy results in greater reports of instructional improvement. The greater the reports of instructional improvement, the more positive the teacher-reported student outcomes, and the more likely changes in reading and math achievement test scores would be in a positive direction" (pp. 190).

Speck, M. (1999). *The principalship: Building a learning community* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

The author views the creation and sustaining of a learning community the most important task for a principal. A learning community includes as members the teachers, staff, principal, students, parents, and the broader community. A learning community is characterized by a social and intellectual relationship among its members. In a school learning community "students learn to use their minds well, and the adults and students model that practice every day throughout the school" (pp. 5). A learning community must be invented by each school and principal in a collaborative, democratic way. Each school learning community, therefore, will be unique, though they will all have commonalities. A learning community must ask certain essential questions to define the quality of learning and life for the community and to prevent a fragmented institution. They are: "What do we want students to know and be able to do? What kinds of learning experiences produce these outcomes? How will we know that students can do these things? What does it take to transform schools into places where this happens? Who is responsible for ensuring that the desired results are achieved?" (PP. 12)

The role of the principal in building this learning community is four-fold. Leader, educator, manager, and inner person are these four complex and interrelated roles. As educator, the principal must learn and reflect on his or her own practice as a teacher, build and communicate the vision of the school, review and research exemplary programs before attempting to utilize them, conduct and promote collaborative research, understand the students and their needs, supervise the curriculum, improve the culture, improve student services, and monitor students' progress. As a leader, the principal must know the present status of the school and be able to envision the future. They must be able to communicate this future vision to all other stakeholders. The principal must determine the capacity for change, and plan and implement change. The principal must be present and available to the other learning community members, empower the staff and community, build trust, monitor and assess progress, celebrate accomplishments, and take care of the individuals in the community. As a manager, the principal must prepare, plan, organize, use recurring systems, direct and carry out the daily activities that enable the school to function. It is a delicate balance to meet the managerial needs of the school but not be overwhelmed by them to the point of sacrificing other principal roles. The principal's inner person refers to a sense of taking good care of one's self. A principal must balance the extreme demands of the school community with a personal and family life, with attention to exercise and health needs. Elements *of this* inner person include utilizing humor, planning for personal financial security, being clear about one's own educational beliefs, tolerate an ambiguous world, reading widely, and keeping professionally updated.

In addition to these four roles, there are processes essential to building a learning community. These include collaboration, facilitation of curriculum, instruction and assessment, professional development (the author includes a specific professional development model referred to as "The Essentials of Best Practice in Professional Development for Sustained Change Model", pp. 153), budget development, use of technology (for instruction and administration), and facilitating the change process. The author draws regularly on research from Fullan, Senge, Barth, Little, and Sergiovanni.

Spillane, J. PP., & Thompson, C. L. (1997). Reconstructing conceptions of local capacity: The local education agency's capacity for ambitious instructional reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 19* (2), 185-203.

In this article, the authors argue that the notion of local capacity needs to be rethought in light of the extraordinary demands for learning imposed on local educators by the current wave of instructional reforms. Confining their discussion to the local education agency (LEA), the authors argue that the LEA's capacity to support ambitious

instruction consists to a large degree of LEA leaders' ability to learn new ideas from external policy and professional sources and to help others within the district learn these ideas. Drawing on a study of nine Michigan school districts, they identify three interrelated dimensions of this capacity--human capital, social capital, and physical capital."

Stata, R. (1989). Organizational learning: The key to management innovation. *Sloan Management Review, 30* (3), 63-73.

"Ray Stata, Chairman of Analog Devices, makes a strong argument that U.S. industry's most serious competitive problem lies in a declining rate of innovation--and that this decline can be traced more to a lack of *management* innovation than to weak *product* or *technology* innovation. As a member of MIT's New Management Style Project, Mr. Stata has been applying innovative ideas and systems thinking to improve the performance and competitiveness of his company." The author argues "that the rate at which individuals and organizations learn may become the only sustainable competitive advantage, especially in knowledge-intensive industries" (pp. 64). He suggests that the challenge is to innovate management tools that increase organizational learning, facilitate change, and build consensus for change. The author describes systems thinking, quality improvement, and information systems as they are used in his company to improve their competitiveness in the industry. The author also suggests a need for collaborative research to further innovation and competitiveness. He recommends these collaborative efforts have the following characteristics: a focus on actual management problems identified by practitioners, develop and disseminate new learning tools and methods, test these tools and methods in practice, provide learning experiences across organizations as well as across disciplines, and include students in cooperative education opportunities.

Stein, M. K., & Brown, C. (1997). Teacher learning in a social context: Integrating collaborative and institutional processes with the study of teacher change. In E. Fennema & B. S. Nelson (Eds.), *Mathematics teachers in transition* (pp. 155-191). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

The authors view the various perspectives on learning as all contributors to our understanding of learning. Each view can aid understanding, and none should be promoted over another. The authors thus propose this article on a sociocultural view of teacher learning and change as complementary to the more familiar psychological perspective. In this, teacher learning is defined as "transformation of participation" (p 160). "(a) Learners participate with an understanding of the *purpose* of the overall activity in which they are involved, (b) the instructional discourse is *conversational* rather than didactic, and individuals with varying levels of expertise and experience *co-participate* , with their roles varying according to their levels of expertise and/or experience" (pp. 160, the author refers to Rogoff, 1994). The authors then apply two sociocultural frameworks to teacher change: one, teacher learning as legitimate peripheral participation as explained by Lave and Wenger (1991), and two, teacher learning as assisted performance as explained by Tharp and Gallimore (1988).

Sterman, J. D. (1989). Modeling managerial behavior: Misperceptions of feedback in a dynamic decision making experiment. *Management Science, 35* (3), 321-339.

"Studies in the psychology of individual choice have identified numerous cognitive and other bounds on human rationality, often producing systematic errors and biases. Yet for the most part models of aggregate phenomena in management science and economics are not consistent with such micro-empirical knowledge of individual decision-making. One explanation has been the difficulty of extending the experimental methods used to study individual decisions to aggregate, dynamic settings. This paper reports an experiment on the generation of macrodynamics from microstructure in a common managerial context. Subjects manage a simulated inventory distribution system which contains multiple actors, feedbacks, nonlinearities, and time delays. The interaction of individual decisions with the structure of the simulated firm produces aggregate dynamics which systematically diverge from optimal behavior. An anchoring and adjustment heuristic for stock management is proposed as a model of the subjects' decision processes. Econometric tests show the rule explains the subjects' behavior well. The estimation results identify several 'misperceptions of feedback' which account for the poor performance of the subjects. In particular, subjects are shown to be insensitive to the feedbacks from their decisions to the environment. Finally, the generality of the results is considered and implications for behavioral theories of aggregate social and economic dynamics are explored."

Stringfield, S., Ross, S. & Smith, L. (Ed.). (1996). *Bold plans for school restructuring: The New American Schools designs* . Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Includes bibliographical references and index. Bold plans for school restructuring: nine designs from New American Schools, Sam Stringfield, Steven Ross, Lana Smith, Sharing the vision: creating new American schools, David T. Kearns, John L. Anderson, Audrey Cohen College System of Education : Purpose- centered education, Audrey Cohen, Janith Jordan, ATLAS communities : Authentic teaching, learning, and assessment for all students, Cynthia J. Orrell, The co-NECT design for school change, Bruce Goldberg, John Richards, The expeditionary learning Outward Bound design, Meg Campbell, et al., The modern red schoolhouse, Ron Heady, Sally Kilgore, Reform at all levels : National Alliance for Restructuring Education Robert Rothman, Roots and wings : universal excellence in elementary education, Robert E. Slavin, Nancy A. Madden, Barbara A. Wasik, Community learning centers, Wayne B. Jennings, Los Angeles learning

centers : An initiative of Los Angeles Unified School District, United Teachers Los Angeles, and Los Angeles Educational Partnership, Judy Johson, John McDonald, Lessons learned : RAND's formative assessment of NAS's phase 2 demonstration effort, Susan Bodilly.

Stringfield, S., Datnow, A., & Ross, M. (1998). *Scaling up school restructuring in multicultural, multilingual contexts: Early observations from Sunland Count* . Washington D.C.: Center for Research on Education Diversity and Excellence.

This report presents early observations of 13 culturally and linguistically diverse elementary schools, each of which is implementing one of six externally developed school restructuring designs. The report focuses exclusively on implementation. The authors discuss variability in fidelity of implementation across sites, citing possible explanations for variance and describing factors they believe will affect the successful implementation in multilingual, multicultural schools. The authors describe the successes and challenges schools are experiencing in adapting the designs to suit their students' needs and identify the conditions that facilitate and hinder implementation.

The authors suggest that the intersection of educational research in diversity education and school restructuring/school reform has been virtually uncultivated. With the exception of the Spanish version of Success for All, there is virtually no research on the effectiveness of the programs in achieving implementation, let alone improvements in student achievement, in multilingual and multicultural contexts (pp.1). The authors, in what they suggest is a first study of its kind, raise three broad policy questions: 1) How effective are current generation school restructuring proposals in improving the achievement of students in schools serving large numbers of language minority students in multicultural contexts? 2)Are some of the current school restructuring models better suited to multilingual and multicultural contexts than others? Can the various reforms be successfully modified to provide high quality services to all students in diverse, multicultural, multilingual contexts? And 3) What actions at the federal, state, school district, sub-district and school levels increase or decrease) the probability of obtaining full benefits from any or all of the restructuring models when the models are being implemented in multilingual, multicultural contexts?

This is a multi-method study that examines diverse processes and outcomes through a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The longitudinal component of the study involves 13 restructuring elementary schools over a 4-year period, with a single follow-up visit to each school during year 5. The 13 longitudinal sites in the study were drawn from schools currently implementing nationally regarded school restructuring models in the Sunland County Public Schools.

Sunland County is one of the largest public school districts in the U.S., serving more than 300,000 students. The system includes over 250 schools. The neighborhoods of Sunland include some of the wealthiest in the country and some characterized by extreme poverty. In collaboration with district administrators at Sunland County Public Schools (SCPS), the researchers identified six restructuring models for study--three NAS designs (Roots & Wings, Audrey Cohen, and Modern Red Schoolhouse) and three externally developed designs (the Comer School Development Program, the Core Knowledge Sequence (Core Knowledge Foundation, 1995; Hirsch, 1987, 1993), and the Coalition of Essential Schools). Although the restructuring designs share certain characteristics, they vary along key dimensions including the extent to which the design relies largely on local development of design details or is a more fully specified, detailed reform design (pp.3).

Following Guba and Lincoln (1981), Miles and Huberman (1994), and Yin (1986), the research team has built a "stepwise replication" component into the study's design (pp.5). The researchers are gathering district information on student's ethnic background, language status, poverty status, exceptional student classification and performance in reading and math on the district-mandated Stanford Achievement Test. The study is using a combination of low-inference classroom observations and more descriptive multiyear observations of students, classrooms, schools and the district, measuring such discrete data as evidence of design implementation and mean student engagement rates. The study requires trained observer assessments of "authentic pedagogy" (Newmann & Wehlage, 1995).

First Year Observations: The schools in this study had all gone through the process of adopting nationally recognized restructuring designs in order to improve education for their students. Although all the schools studied were 2-4 years into implementation, fidelity of design implementation across and within schools varied. Few schools appeared to have a fully implemented reform design, a staff that seemed universally committed to the design, and successful integration of the design with instruction for linguistically diverse students (pp.7). In addition, the researchers observed schools where perhaps half of the teachers were implementing virtually all the components of a particular reform, schools in which teachers were implementing half or more of the components of a model, and schools that fell somewhere in between or below.

The researchers identify several factors (they suggest) might lead to the variable implementation observed between and within sites: 1) Demographic and Numeric shifts in student populations, 2) the extent to which educators chose and were involved in designs, 3) Multiple programs and "opportunistic additions" (pp.10) that result in doing too many things at once; 4) the perceived disconnection between implementation and accountability.

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context* . New

York: Cambridge University Press.

This text builds upon the work of Vygotsky to create a new theory of education. This theory is based upon the idea that a person learns best in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), an area that is beyond what they can do alone but within one's capabilities when assisted by another. Teaching should be focused on this area of each individual student. This form of teaching has implications for the organization of the entire school, as well. Principals and other consultants should focus on how to assist teachers to attend to each student's ZPD. Also, teaching and schooling should take place jointly with others. If one is to function in the ZPD, it is necessary to collaborate with others to succeed. Therefore, such schools would be organized to facilitate much interaction among students and teachers and support staff. Learning activities are structured around end products: if you need a canoe, you build it, and when it is finished you stop and move on. Schools should connect new ideas and concepts to everyday concepts in order to broaden students and aid in their ability to think in the abstract. Instruction in schools should concentrate on the comprehension, or weaving together, of new and ordinary. The bulk of examples supporting and explaining this method of schooling and teaching (Part II of the text) are taken from the fifteen years of experience of the Kamehameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP) based in Hawaii, but also including a Navajo reservation in Arizona and schools in Los Angeles.

Tillema, H. H., & Imants, J. M. (1995). Training for the professional development of teachers. In T. R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education* (pp. 135-150). New York: Teachers College Press.

Unlike in other professions, it appears that training or professional development in teaching bifurcate into different, even opposite directions. In other related professions, and even more in business and industry, training or development are interrelated to such a degree that growth in professional performance is regard as virtually impossible without an accompanying training cycle. The authors suggest that there is a clear trend in teaching to separate the two facts. Training is hardly mentioned anymore in discussions of professional development and has acquired a negative connotation with regard to development and professional growth. Understanding of growth and development in teaching is dependent on perspective of the profession and must take into account a "craft" perspective on the teaching profession which has received considerable attention as a code for professional development and as a concept for teacher education. From this perspective, growth in competence can only be accomplished within the cultural milieu of teaching itself through (re) construction of knowledge in real-life situation (Clandinin & Connelly, 1986), where teachers learn from their own experience (by cumulative reflection) or from one another. Training has become associated with a perspective of teaching as a technical skill and equated with the development of competence in specific behaviors, or at best with the application of general principles derived from a specific educational theory. Teaching research has been criticized for inventing competencies that are of little relevance to practice and removed from the real problems of teaching. The authors argue that training can further the professional development of teachers, only if it is compatible with and sensitive to the constructs and knowledge base of the teacher and only if it is related to the perceived tasks of the teacher.

U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Appropriations Minority Staff Document. (1998). *Building better schools through comprehensive school reform* . Washington D.C.: U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Appropriations Minority Staff Document.

This document describes the Congressional initiative sponsored by Congressmen Obey and Porter (Obey-Porter bill) included in the FY 1998 Labor-HHS-Education Appropriations act signed into law on November 13, 1997. This law focuses on whole school reform, rather than piecemeal programs, by providing $145 million for incentive grants to schools that undertake proven comprehensive school reforms, $4 million for the regional ed. labs to provide assistance to these schools, and $1 million for the identification and dissemination of proven comprehensive reform models. The document describes how and when the funds will be distributed, how states, school districts, and schools apply for funding. It also provides a list of examples of comprehensive school reform models.

US Department Of Education. (1995). *Achieving the goals: Goal 4 teacher education and professional development* . Washington D.C.: US Government Printing Office.

This book is the second in a series of eight planned books to inform people of the programs and resources available to support the eight Goals 2000 education goals. Goal 4 states, "By the Year 2000, the Nation's teaching force will have access to programs for the continued improvement of their professional skills and the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to instruct and prepare all American students for the 21st century" (pp.3). PD, according to US Department of Education research, should focus on teachers both individually and collectively and on organizational improvement. It should respect and nurture the capacity of all members of the school community. It should reflect the best available research on teaching, learning and leadership. PD should enable teachers to improve in content knowledge, teaching strategies, use of technology and promote continuous improvement. It will require substantial time and resources, should be collaboratively planned, be consistent with long-range school plans, and be regularly evaluated.

The majority of this book lists the available assistance and resources from formula grants, discretionary grants, Goals 2000 monies, Civil Rights and Equity programs, PD programs and many others. Contact names, phone numbers, addresses, and brief descriptions are provided for the many sources listed.

Van de Ven, A. H., & Huber, G. PP. (1990). Longitudinal field research methods for studying processes of organizational change. *Organization Science, 1* (3), 213-219.
This article distinguishes between studying the antecedents and/or consequences or organizational forms and practices and studying how an organization change emerges, develops, grows or terminates over time. The first has an input-output view, while the second looks at process. Process theories differ in that some look at changes in variables over time and others focus on sequences of events or stages to understand how organizations change. The beginning point is a narrative history or story. Methodological issues are well-developed and accepted for input-output style research, but much less so for process studies. This article overviews the other five articles in this edition which discuss methodological issues involved in conducting longitudinal field research on organizational processes including ethnographic methods, longitudinal and comparative case studies, event history analysis, and real-time tracking of events as they occur over time. Issues covered in this issue: investigator as observer and interpreter v. investigator using a participant as observer and interpreter; the inevitable effect of studying a system influenced ("disturbed" as opposed to "undisturbed") by the researcher's presence; theoretical and practical concerns such as time, site selection, choices about data collection, and complexity; increasing generalizability through the "case replication" methodology (comparing case study findings with retrospective analyses of other cases); and increasing generalizability by using retrospective event histories on hundreds of organizational changes and sacrificing the in-depth knowledge of individual stories. Overall, the articles are designed to focus on practice and methods rather than philosophical issues and debates.

Verdugo, R. R., Uribe, O., Jr. , Schneider, J. M., Henderson, R. D., & Greenberg, N. M. (1996). Statistical quality: Control, quality schools, and the NEA: Advocating for quality. *Contemporary Education, 76* (2), 88-93.

NEA's project on *Conditions of Teaching and Learning* changed its name to *KEYS: Keys to Quality Education in Your School* . Whichever name, the project is a synthesis and extension of the research on effective schools and statistical product control (e.g. TQM). These resulted in eleven education quality characteristics: "1. A shared understanding about achievable educational outcomes. 2. A belief that all students can achieve under the right conditions. 3. The use and understanding of statistical assessment of students on a daily basis. 4. The level of teacher involvement in the process of choosing teaching materials and resources. 5. The extent to which barriers are sought, identified, and remedied. 6. The degree to which employees are provided training to help them perform their jobs. 7. The extent to which the program, rather than individuals, is evaluated. 8. The amount of two-way non-threatening communication. 9. The extent to which teamwork is used for solving problems. 10. The degree to which numbers are used constructively and where mandates and goals are eliminated. 11. The degree to which all groups in the school and the community are involved in improving education" (pp. 89). The thirty-five education quality tools were named as: 1) Parents and school employees are committed to long-range continuous improvement. 2) Central and building administration are committed to long-range continuous improvement. 3) Goals for achievable education outcomes are clear and explicit. 4) Teachers, education support personnel, parents, administrators, students, school board, district administrators, and civic groups are all involved in improving education. 5) Teachers, education support personnel, students, and parents believe all students can learn. 6) School district administration and school boards believe all students can learn. 7) School is an overall learning environment for employees and students. 8) Teachers assess student improvement daily. 9) Administrators assess student improvement daily. 10) The school uses teacher-made tests to assess students. 11) The school uses oral classroom activities to assess students. 12) The school uses exhibitions to assess students. 13) Assessments take into account student background. 14. Academic programs are assessed. 15) Teachers consistently rate program quality. 16) Assessment results are actually used, and classroom decisions are based on assessments. 17) Instructional materials are selected based on quality. 18) Instructional materials are selected based on appropriateness to student needs. 19) Instructional materials are not selected based on cost. 20) Space is adequate within the school building. 21) Supplies are adequate. 22) Support services are adequate. 23) Psychological and social work services are available. 24. School staff actively seeks to identify barriers to learning. 25) Teachers work to remove barriers. 26) Education support personnel work to remove barriers. 27) Students and parents work to remove barriers. 28) School and district administration work to remove barriers to learning. 29) A cooperative problem-solving process is used to remove barriers. 30) There is ongoing consistent staff development in the areas of decision-making, problem solving, leadership, and communication. 31) Staff development is an ongoing, high quality, state-of-the-art, and practical experience for all school employees. 32) There is two-way non-threatening communication between school employees and school administrators. 33) There is two-way non-threatening communication between school employees and district administration. 34) There is two- way non-threatening communication among teachers. 35) All communication takes place within a climate that is open to innovation" (pp. 92). Their research suggests that 1) the 11 quality characteristics and 35 quality tools are related to overall student achievement and 2) to the achievement of minority students, 3) "no one set of characteristics or tools can be used without the others being present if the goal is to improve school quality" (pp.90), and 4) that to fully improve one's school, the upper limits (not just a medium level) of the 11 principles and 35 tools must be reached.

Verdugo, R. R., Greenberg, N. M., Henderson, R. D., Uribe, O., Jr., & Schneider, J. M. (1997). School governance regimes and teachers' job satisfaction: Bureaucracy, legitimacy, and community. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 33* (1), 38-66.

Previous reforms have focused on motivating and recruiting, teachers, and improving teacher preparation. These lacked consideration of the climate or culture of the schools. This research looked at three bodies of research: effective schools,

workers' job satisfaction, and statistical project control. These suggested that bureaucracies must become or become linked to communities. Statistical project control offers a link by emphasizing the participation of workers in key issues to develop community. The authors hypothesized: "H1: Although schools are bureaucracies, the closer schools come to developing a community, the greater will be teachers' job satisfaction. H2: The degree to which schools develop communities depends on the degree to which teachers give legitimacy to the governance regime in their schools. H3: The greater the legitimacy given to a governance regime in the school, the greater will be teachers' job satisfaction. H4: The greater is the involvement of teachers in the evaluation and assessment of school programs and not individuals, the more likely it is that they will give legitimacy to their governing regime, the greater will be their sense of community, and the greater will be their job satisfaction" (pp. 47-48). A survey of NEA teacher members (n=1585 respondents) was used for data, and verified all 4 hypotheses. The authors conclude that a shift from bureaucracies to communities isn't the issue. What is necessary is that teachers legitimize the governance regime of their school.

Virany, B., Tushman, M. L., & Romanelli, E. (1992). Executive succession and organization outcomes in turbulent environments: An organization learning approach. *Organization Science, 3* (1), 72-91.

"This paper explores executive succession as an important mechanism for organization learning and, thus, for organization adaptation. We argue that executive succession can fundamentally alter the knowledge, skills and interaction processes of the senior management team. These revised skills and communication processes improve the team's ability to recognize and act on changing environmental conditions. Especially in turbulent environments, succession may be critical for improving or sustaining the performance of the firm. We explore continuity and change of CEOs and their executive teams as associated with first- and second-order organization learning, which are differentially important under stable versus turbulent environmental conditions. We also link these organization learning ideas to the nature of organization evolution. A series of hypotheses link executive-team succession and strategic reorientation to subsequent organization performance.

"Results in a study of fifty-nine minicomputer firms, all founded between 1968 and 1971, indicate that succession exerts a positive influence on organization performance. We also show that it is important to distinguish between CEO succession and executive-team change, which independently improve subsequent organization performance. The positive impact of succession is accentuated when it coincides with strategic reorientation. Finally we examined how longer term patterns in succession and reorientation affect organization performance. We discovered two modes of organization adaptation in this turbulent industry. The most typical mode combines CEO succession, sweeping executive-team changes, and strategic reorientations. A more rare, and over the long-term more effective, adaptation involves strategic reorientation and executive-team change, but no succession of the CEO. Consistently high-performing organizations are managed to sustain a relatively high level of learning (through turnover of senior executives and strategic reorientation), and at the same time to maintain links with established organizational competencies (through retention of the CEO)." (PP. 72).

Wang, M. C., Oates, J., & Weishew, N. (1995). Effective school responses to student diversity in inner-city schools. *Education And Urban Society, 27* (4), 484-503.

The authors note the need to utilize what is known about achieving academic success with at-risk students in actual schools. To this goal, the Learning City Program (LCP) was designed, focusing on ways to harness the resources, expertise, and energies of schools, homes, churches, higher education institutions and other community sources to support the learning of all students. Collaboration is a key component, as the authors state that "what seems crucial is the way in which successful practices are combined in an integrated system of delivery that considers the needs of the students and the site-specific strengths and constraints at the staff resource support, policy, and administrative levels" (pp. 486). The LCP has 3 major components: school development, including planning, management, and mental health teams; family-community supports for student learning; and instructional delivery model utilizing an inclusive approach to educating a diverse student body (special education, Chapter 1, and bilingual students). Preliminary findings in three cases (described in article) during the first years of implementation show increased attendance, student achievement, parental participation, student and parent satisfaction, and student sense of involvement. Overall, the program has significant potential as it moves to scale-up phases of implementation.

Wehlage, G. G., Rutter, R. A., Smith, G. A., Lesko, N., & Fernandez, R. R. (1989). School membership. *Reducing the risk: Schools as communities of support* (pp. 113-134). New York: Falmer Press.

This chapter argues that not only must schools match interventions to the students' needs and characteristics, but they must also attend to the deep-seated need of membership and belonging. At-risk students in particular require special attention to develop this sense of belonging with peer groups as well as with adults in the community. The authors develop a theory of dropout prevention utilizing theories of social bonding with four conditions: social and emotional attachment to others, commitment to participation, involvement in organizational activities, and a level of faith in the institution and its legitimacy. To develop these social bonds, reciprocal relationships between students and teachers/staff are required. The authors' dropout theory encompasses impediments to social bonding: "*adjustment* , *difficulty* , *incongruence* , and *isolation* " (pp. 121). Social bonding is viewed as an intermediate goal in the academic achievement of at-risk students.

Wehlage, G. G., Rutter, R. A., Smith, G. A., Lesko, N., & Fernandez, R. R. (1989). Effects of school as a community. *Reducing the risk: Schools as communities of support* (pp. 151-175). New York: Falmer Press.

This chapter has introduced the initial elements of a theory of dropout prevention. This theory applies the concept of school membership to identify a basic student need and outcome that is fundamental to other school goals. School membership is a goal defined in terms of social bonding criteria: attachment, commitment, involvement and belief. At-risk students need schools that deliberately act in ways to show their commitment to helping them overcome the impediments to membership. This active commitment begins with an assumption of reciprocity between adults and students and requires warm personal relations between them.

"The concept of school membership helps interpret and explain much of the data about social relations gathered during our study of fourteen schools. School membership is viewed as an intermediate goal for students, the foundation for other goals involving academic achievement and outcomes concerning personal and social development into productive adults. Membership is particularly important for those students who have histories of school failure and who lack the support of strong homes and communities outside the school" (pp. 133).

The authors use data from at-risk programs (n=14) to assess the extent to which innovative programs can affect students' sense of school membership and lead to more positive school outcomes. Measures included pre and post tests, attendance rates, changes in student GPA, and frequency of disciplinary referrals. To measure the students' sense of school membership, changes in personal orientations were monitored using the Wisconsin Youth Survey. These orientations include social bonding, self-esteem, socio-centric reasoning, locus of control, academic self-concept and the perception of opportunity. Qualitative interview data was also used. The at-risk programs differing most from conventional school models scored the highest in positive student changes in attitude and academic performance. The two schools most closely resembling the traditional school were the least effective programs, with scores dropping in many areas. The most successful programs appear to link school more closely to the experience and values of the students. They diminish isolation and increase self- esteem by developing a climate of trust and support. These enable students to focus on the link between success in school and the possibility of a better future, rather than past failures and present circumstances.

Wehlage, G. G., Rutter, R. A., Smith, G. A., Lesko, N., & Fernandez, R. R. (1989). Teacher culture and school structure. *Reducing the risk: Schools as communities of support* (pp. 135-150). New York: Falmer Press.

From case studies of school programs (n=14) serving at-risk students, the authors used their data on teacher characteristics and the work environment to draw conclusions about professional culture and school structure. In educating at-risk students, the authors state the necessity of teachers believing in a reciprocity of teacher-student actions--both parties must be respectful, and educators must initiate aid in helping students overcome barriers to social membership. Positive teacher culture is characterized by teacher's acceptance of accountability for student success, extension of teacher role, persistence with more difficult students, and staying optimistic that all students can learn if one builds on their strengths. Teacher culture related to the work environment is described in three interrelated components: "educational entrepreneurship, self-governance, and professional collegiality" (pp. 138). School structures that enabled successful programs were small size with one-on- one relations and autonomy with flexibility.

Weick, K. (1996). The nontraditional quality of organizational learning. In M. Cohen & L. Sproull (Eds.), *Organizational Learning* (pp. 163-174). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

"The traditional definition of learning as a shift in performance when the stimulus situation remains essentially the same implies a set of conditions that occur rarely in organizations. Thus, either organizational learning is an infrequent event, or it occurs frequently but takes a nontraditional form. Both possibilities are reviewed and implications for research strategy are suggested."

Westheimer, J. (1999). Communities and consequences: An Inquiry into Ideology and practice in Teacher's Professional Work. *Educational Administrator Quarterly, 35* (1), 71-105.

This article is concerned with the notion of teacher professional community. The author asserts that both theoretical and policy related reform literature contains vague and under conceptualized notions of community which obscure significant differences in beliefs and practices. Common criteria for identifying community such as shared beliefs, participation, interdependence, dissent, and attention to relationships has historically concealed significant differences in schools. The author uses the social theory of community and school reform literature to reveal the five most common features of community; shared beliefs, interaction and participation, interdependence, concern for individual and minority views, and meaningful relationships. The author goes on to identify a second body of literature, which attends to ways of building teacher professional communities. The author identifies four reform efforts; smaller schools, magnet programs, site-based management, and collegiality and collaboration which the author argues has done little to "clarify or reconcile ambiguous visions of teacher professional community."(pp77)and focuses only on conditions necessary for the growth of

professional communities.

The author uses case studies of two schools to define a continuum of beliefs and practices that can exist under the rubric of community. He describes the characteristics of what he classifies as liberal and collective forms of community. *Liberal communities are characterized by an emphasis on individual rights* and responsibilities. Collective communities are characterized by shared goals and strong social contact. The author provides a table, which explicates the continuum of values associated with the five common features of community listed above. The author contends that "these binary endpoints are not either/or but rather constitute the playing field of conceptual space on which teachers in each school make their organizational and interpersonal decisions."(pp.97) The author goes on to assert the word professional used in conjunction with community has resulted in attention to technical expertise rather than ideological commitments. He contends the notion that members of a community share beliefs has become a truism used to avoid discussions of what community members believe. The author claims that the "absence of empirical research in the school workplace that distinguishes between different conceptions of teacher professional community may have caused researchers and practitioners to overlook significant individual and organizational factors contributing to the survival or dissolution of these communities" (pp 100).

The author concludes with three reasons for attending to the continuum of community. 1). Discussions of community glosses over underlying inequalities that may be responsible for school failure. 2) Discussions of community can be used to avoid discussions of race, class, gender, and power. 3) The "head-nodding agreement" that surrounds discussions of community results in the " obfuscation of consequences that come from ideological choices"(pp102).

Wheatley, M. J. (1992). *Leadership and the new science* . San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Wheatley draws her insights on organizational life from diverse fields such as physics and biochemistry. Wheatley's book is a call for individuals to "loosen their existing paradigms" which comprise effective working relations within organizations. Wheatley is a chaos theorist and her work is an attempt to remind those in organizations that the chaos they are supposed to be managing, is somehow now managing them. She points to structures and organisms in nature that shape themselves functionally rather than through dogmatic adherence to a preconceived structure and manage to fulfill their functions remarkably well. Wheatley explains that what may appear chaotic and disorganized within organization may well be viewed as manifestations of very natural transitions to new evolutionary states. For that reason, it should neither be shut down or resisted, but rather be allowed to evolve to new levels of order and understanding.

Wilson, S. M. (1990). A conflict of interests: The case of Mark Black. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 12* (3), 309-326.

A fifth grade teacher's adoption of the California Mathematics Curriculum Framework is described, focusing on the teacher's interaction with the textbook. Four constraints influencing the teacher's ability to enact the policy are discussed. This case study illustrates that teachers are themselves learners who need support/nurturing as they change their practice.

Wilson, S. M. & Berne, J. (1999). Teacher learning and the acquisition of professional knowledge: An examination of research on contemporary professional development. In A. Iran-Nejad, and P. D. Pearson, (Eds.) *Research in education 24.* (pp. 173-210). Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

The authors review contemporary beliefs about effective professional development. Alternative approaches to teacher learning are discussed, including opportunities to talk about subject matter, to talk about students and learning, and to talk about teaching. They then address contemporary themes in contemporary professional development and research on teacher learning, such as the redefinition of teaching practice, the idea that teacher learning ought to be activated rather than "delivered" to teachers, and the privileging of teachers' interactions with one another. Challenges then receive attention. For example, there is no professional development "system." The reputation of traditional professional development workshops requires creation of alternative venues for professional learning. Research on professional development is "messy" and tends to emphasize process over outcomes. Finally, where to address is covered. The authors argue, among other things, that there is a need for subject-specific investigations of teacher learning, since subject-matter knowledge is acquired differently across disciplines. Also, there is a need for research to link teacher learning and student achievement.

Wilson, S. M., Peterson, PP. L., Ball, D. L., & Cohen, D. K. (1996). Learning by all. *Phi Delta Kappan, 468-476* , 468-476.

The authors are involved in a longitudinal investigation of the ways policy makers and practitioners think about curricular reform in elementary mathematics and literacy instruction. The authors discuss the inevitable course that current reforms will take if changes are not made. Current reforms are asking teachers to teach in ways that they have never seen with any directions, only pictures of the ideal end state. Success of these reforms depends on teachers, policy makers, and parents and administrators learning--gaining new conceptions of learning and the nature, purpose and scope

of school subjects. The authors use three stories to offer a glimpse of the complexity of the learning that these reforms require of individuals and the system, and how these lessons learned get communicated. One example is of the California state department of education, how they evolved from focusing on new math curriculum, to new math units with professional development, to ongoing professional development, to a Renaissance Project consisting of many different stakeholders continually working towards solving problems to reform mathematics education. They continue to evolve. A second example is of a teacher educator who is part of an ongoing dialogue with teachers over the meaning of multiculturalism and mathematics teaching. The third example is of an exemplary classroom elementary teacher, highly involved in reform projects such as the new state-level performance assessment project, piloting the new literacy assessments, scoring at national scoring conferences, and participating in professional development activities. This teacher, though involved in reforms, has never been given the opportunity to discuss or comment on her concerns with the reforms. She has not been able to socially construct (i.e. learn) views of new models, and therefore, has not incorporated much of the new reforms in to her practice. The authors propose four "hunches" (pp. 475) s to how we can facilitate learning to avoid more examples like the third one. First, learning is centered on discussions of concrete issues of teaching, learning, classrooms, and students. Second, learning seems to depend on experimentation and on- going reflection with a sustained relationship group. Third, those in different parts of the education system must come together to discuss reforms and learning in order to have varying viewpoints and show different ways of thinking. Fourth, All participants must see themselves as learners, "with equal parts of conviction and humility, skepticism and hope."(pp. 476).

The authors believe that subject oriented curricular standards, teacher assessment standards. and proposed new frameworks for professional development all affect teachers, focusing on teacher educators. Unless prepared for otherwise, the likely response for teacher preparation programs will only be to add a course on new standards, develop sessions on creating a portfolio, or entrepreneurial classes on how to pass the state licensing exam. To avoid this lesson of history, teacher education should be concerned with 1) teaching undergraduates new reform methods when they have never seen these enacted in all their years of schooling, 2) teaching new methods to undergraduates when these new methods are not detailed anywhere, and 3) teaching beginners in a way that accounts for the differences between beginning and experienced teachers. This may mean teaching a weaker version of reform-oriented practice, teaching isolated core practices to reduce complexity, or teaching traditional forms of practice and moving to reform methods after the mastery of the former. Researchers have only begun to address nay of these areas, so empirical evidence is unavailable to support any particular method., Teacher educators will need to: discern what elements of current classrooms should still be taught and which should be replaced; create new models of teaching practice, develop appropriate sites in schools for training; and exploit the possibilities of new images to continue improvements, and teach educators to reason in and about their practice.

Wilson, S. M., & Ball, D. L. (1996). Helping teachers meet tne standards: New challenges for teacher educators. *The Elementary School Journal, 97* (2), 121-138.

The authors believe that subject oriented curricular standards, teacher assessment standards, and proposed new frameworks for professional development all affect teachers, focusing on teacher educators. Unless prepared for otherwise, the likely response for teacher preparation programs will only be to add a course on new standards, develop sessions on creating a portfolio, or entrepreneurial classes on how to pass the state licensing exam. To avoid this lesson of history, teacher education should be concerned with 1) teaching undergraduates new reform methods when they have never seen these enacted in all their years of schooling, 2) teaching new methods to undergraduates when these new methods are not detailed anywhere, and 3) teaching beginners in a way that accounts for the differences between beginning and experienced teachers. This may mean teaching a weaker version of reform-oriented practice, teaching isolated core practices to reduce complexity, or teaching traditional forms of practice and moving to reform methods after the mastery of the former. Researchers have only begun to address nay of these areas, so empirical evidence is unavailable to support any particular method., Teacher educators will need to : discern what elements of current classrooms should still be taught and which should be replaced; create new models of teaching practice, develop appropriate sites in schools for training; and exploit the possibilities of new images to continue improvements, and teach educators to reason in and about their practice.

Wohlstetter, PP., & Smyer, R. (1994). Models of high-performance schools. In S. A. Mohrman, PP. Wolstetter, & Associates (Eds.), *School-based management: Organizing for high performance* (pp. 81-107). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

High performance schools are those that continually improve their level of performance and the efficiency with which they consume resources (pp.81). Based on what is known from the private sector, the way an organization is structured is key to high performance. There is evidence that a high involvement approach where control over power, knowledge, information and rewards is decentralized can boost organizational performance and productivity (pp.81). This chapter examines four models of high performance schools that advocate restructuring school organizations in various ways to improve performance. The four models are Effective Schools, The School Development Program, Accelerated Schools, and Essential Schools. These models are examined for the extent to which they compliment the high involvement approach and to determine/ learn from them strategies that may be helpful in making the connections between school based management and high performance. Wohlstetter and Smyer conclude that the four models use different strategies

to achieve the same goal of increasing student achievement. However, there are similarities across the four models that can be grouped into three categories: strategies that promote a school culture; strategies that develop learning opportunities for students; and strategies that foster local control. Each group of strategies ensures the efficient use of power, knowledge or information by the school organization. The authors suggest that the four models of high performance schools clearly compliment a high involvement approach to management. The similarities, moreover, suggest implementation strategies that are helpful in using site-based management as a route to high performance: schools should be given wide latitude in defining themselves; power roles should be extended beyond school staff to include various stakeholders especially parents; training opportunities should include knowledge of issues related to self-governance as well as content and pedagogical knowledge. While the use of financial rewards are uncommon in all four of the high performance models analyzed for this article, the authors contend that at a minimum schools should be given some authority to control their own budgets so that resources can be allocated to promote school priorities.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. (1987). Teaching students to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review, 57* , 23-48.

The authors argue that the current teacher education program model, featuring apprenticeship, inhibits the self-directed growth of student teachers and fails to promote their full professional development. They describe an alternative model used at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, that promotes reflective teaching, teacher autonomy, and democratic participation.

Zeichner, K. M., & Hoeft, K. (1996). Teacher socialization for cultural diversity. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (2 ed., pp. 525-547). New York.: Simon & Schuster Macmillan:.

This chapter examines literature related to socialization of teachers to teach culturally diverse students. The authors provide a brief historical context of US education's focus on cultural diversity. The authors then suggest 4 dimensions that can be used to describe all preservice teacher education programs. These are 1) the focus on cultural diversity with an infusion strategy versus a segregated strategy such as a separate course for preservice teachers, 2) the focus on s a specific culture or a culture-general strategy, 3) the level of emphasis on interacting with cultures versus studying about cultures, and 4) the extent to which the teacher education program itself is culturally responsive and "practices what it preaches." The authors summarize research that suggests current selection practices of prospective teachers results in many more teachers who desire white middle class student populations than those who feel prepared to teach culturally diverse urban school populations.

Curriculum and instruction strategies of teacher education programs fail to change prospective teachers views towards believing that all students can learn. They also do not place enough emphasis on helping prospective teachers challenge their own cultural beliefs, background, and biases and provide them with knowledge and exposure to other cultures. Variations of having prospective teachers do case study research are suggested as possible methods, with examples cited. Field experiences are commonly used for multicultural education purposes. In general, only weak evidence supports the success or long lasting effects of any of these programs.

The authors also look at the role of institutional support for cultural diversity, noting problems with the cultural insularity of college faculty, and a lack of institutional commitment to diversity as seen in policies and practices. The literature pays little attention to in-services for teachers in cultural diversity. There is a lack of evidence of success for the few programs that exist; thus, it is difficult to propose principles of design for such in-services. The literature is divided on whether to focus on changing teachers' attitudes or their skills and practices first. The authors conclude with the suggestion that teacher educators could learn a great deal form the work in culture diversity in the areas of social work, counseling psychology, nursing, and law.

Zetlin, A. G., & MacLeod, E. (1995). A school-university partnership working toward the restructure of an urban school and community. *Education and Urban Society, 27* (4), 411-420.
This article presents a case study of a restructuring elementary school in Los Angeles, CA. The school has high numbers of students in poverty, LEP students, and students eligible for Chapter I funding. The teachers felt the school was not doing all it could, especially in the area of literacy, for its students and so requested a partnership with interested university professors. Teachers volunteered to participate in the restructuring activities. Initial data came from a 20/20 Analysis. Classrooms were reorganized to decrease student teacher ratios in grades K-2, and special education teachers were matched with regular teachers to team teach grades 3-6. A parent room was set up to involve parents and meet their needs, hoping to improve students' attendance. Medical, dental and counseling services were also integrated to focus on the whole child's development and needs. Attendance noticeably increased, parent involvement significantly increased in quality and quantity, involved teachers work more collegially, and more teacher are interested in participating. The teachers have established the norms of a professional learning community. Student scholastic achievement seems to be heading in a positive direction, though it is too early for concrete results.